DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 295 342 EA 020 218

AUTHOR	Leithwood, K.; And Others
TITLE	The Development of Ontario Schools: Intermediate and Senior Divisions--1984 (OSIS) and the Initial Phase of Its Implementation.
INSTITUTION	Ontario Dept. of Education, Toronto.
REPORT NO	ISBN-0-7729-2061-3
PUB DATE	87
CONTRACT	OME-0958
NOTE	216p.
AVAILABLE FROM	MGS Publications Services, 5th Floor, 880 Bay Street, Ontario, Canada M7A 1N8 ($10.00 Canadian).
PUB TYPE	Reports - Research/Technical (143)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC09 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Boards of Education; Case Studies; Decision Making; *Educational Change; *Educational Policy; Foreign Countries; Interviews; *Politics of Education; Principals; Secondary Education; *State School District Relationship
IDENTIFIERS	*Ontario

ABSTRACT

This case study examines the development and implementation of secondary education policy in Ontario as defined in "Ontario Schools: Intermediate and Senior Divisions (OSIS)--1984." Data were gathered for the period from 1980 when the Secondary Education Review Project (SERP) was initiated, to 1984 when the policy outlined in OSIS was to be fully implemented. Data were drawn from relevant documents, interviews with 19 knowledgeable persons, and a survey of Ontario secondary school principals. A survey questionnaire about the factors and conditions that affect policy implementation was distributed to 259 secondary school principals from 53 randomly selected school boards throughout Ontario. Usable returns were received from 159 principals (60 percent). Results indicate that principals' personal beliefs and professional experiences dominate the decision-making process and increase in importance in the later stages of the implementation process. The data on OSIS implementation indicates that the administrative aspects of OSIS were perceived by principals to have been fully implemented by 1986 but that the philosophical intent of the policy had yet to be implemented within courses and integrated into classroom activities. Included with the text are 7 figures and 19 tables. A total of 11 pages of references are attached to the 2 sections of the report. (MLF)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Carolann
Patsalides
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Ministry
of
Education

EA 020 218

THE DEVELOPMENT OF *ONTARIO SCHOOLS: INTERMEDIATE AND SENIOR DIVISIONS–1984 (OSIS)* AND THE INITIAL PHASE OF ITS IMPLEMENTATION

K. LEITHWOOD
J. MILLER
J. ROSS
F. MAYNES
D. MACKERACHER

This research project was funded under contract by the Ministry of Education, Ontario.

It reflects the views of the authors and not necessarily those of the Ministry.

The Honourable Sean Conway, Minister
Bernard J. Shapiro, Deputy Minister

© QUEEN'S PRINTER FOR ONTARIO, 1987

Order information:

Publications Sales
The Ontario Institute for
Studies in Education
252 Bloor Street West
Toronto, Ontario
M5S 1V6
(416) 926-4707

Will invoice on orders over $30.00.
Other orders must be accompanied by a
cheque or money order payable to
O.I.S.E.

MGS Publications Services
880 Bay Street, 5th Floor
Toronto, Ontario
M7A 1N8
(416) 965-6015
(Toll Free) 1-800-268-7540
(Toll Free from area code 807)
Ask operator for Zenith 67200.

Order must be accompanied by a cheque
or money order payable to the
Treasurer of Ontario.

Contract 0958
ONO 3733

Canadian Cataloguing in Publication Data

Main entry under title
The Development of Ontario Schools

ISBN 0-7729-2061-3

1. Education and state—Ontario. 2. Education,
Secondary—Ontario. I. Leithwood, K.A. (Kenneth
Arthur), 1942- . II. Ontario. Ministry of Education.

LC91.2057.D48 1986 379.1'54 C87-099605-3

The appendices to this report are available on microfiche
from the Ontario Government Bookstore.

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT viii

PART I: THE DEVELOPMENT AND INITIATION OF OSIS

Chapter 1: PURPOSES OF THE STUDY 2

1.1 BACKGROUND 2

1.2 OBJECTIVES 2

1.3 SPECIFIC RESEARCH QUESTIONS 3

Chapter 2: METHODS 5

2.1 OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH METHODS 5

2.2 THE DOCUMENT FILE 5

2.3 DOCUMENT ANALYSIS 8

2.4 INTERVIEWS 10

Chapter 3: RESULTS 13

3.1 ANALYSIS OF PRE-SERP ACTIVITIES 13
  3.1.1 Question 1: Background Conditions 13
  3.1.2 Question 2: Background Events 18
  3.1.3 Question 3: Precipitating Factors 21
  3.1.4 Question 4: Choice of SERP Process ....

3.2 ANALYSIS OF SERP ACTIVITIES 24
  3.2.1 Question 5: Structures and Functions of SERP 24
  3.2.2 Question 6: SERP Objectives 29
  3.2.3 Question 7: SERP Membership 31
  3.2.4 Question 8: Generation of Original Data Base 36
  3.2.5 Question 9: Decision-Making Processes 38
  3.2.6 Question 10: The Discussion Paper 44
  3.2.7 Question 11: The Final Report 48
  3.2.8 Question 12: Effects of Policy Development 51
    3.2.8.1 On the Public at Large 51
    3.2.8.2 On the Ministry of Education 52
    3.2.8.3 On Provincial Education Associations 53
    3.2.8.4 On School Boards 60

3.3 ANALYSIS OF POST-SERP ACTIVITIES 61
  3.3.1 Question 13: Ministry Response to SERP 61
  3.3.2 Question 14: Development of OSIS 66
  3.3.3 Question 15: Ministry Orientation Activities 71
  3.3.4 Question 16: Implementation Activities 74
  3.3.5 Question 17: Obstacles to Implementation 75
  3.3.6 Question 18: Problems with Implementation 77
  3.3.7 Question 19: Factors Affecting Implementation 79

Chapter 4: POLICY DEVELOPMENT 80

4.1 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON POLICY DEVELOPMENT 80

4.2 THE POLICY DEVELOPMENT PROCESS 80
  4.2.1 Alternative Perspectives on Policy Development 80
    4.2.1.1 Systems Theory 81
    4.2.1.2 Elite Theory 82
    4.2.1.3 Group Theory 82

4.2.1.4 Rational Decision-Making Theory 85
4.2.1.5 Incrementalism 86
4.2.1.6 Institutionalism 87
4.2.1.7 Other Perspectives 87
4.2.2 Selected Empirical Research 90
4.2.3 Conclusion 93

4.3 A THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE ON OSIS DEVELOPMENT 95
4.3.1 A Narrow Definition of the Policy 95
4.3.1.1 Scope 95
4.3.1.2 Redistribution 96
4.3.1.3 Means ....
4.3.2 OSIS Development Viewed Through Six Perspectives on Policy Development 98
4.3.2.1 Systems Theory - Environment 98
4.3.2.2 Institutionalism - Political Organization 100
4.3.2.3 Special Interests - Group Theory 101
4.3.2.4 Elite Theory - The Bureaucracy 106
4.3.2.5 Rational Decision Making 107
4.3.2.6 Incrementalism 108
4.3.3 An Expanded Definition of the Policy 110
4.3.3.1 Description of an Expanded Definition 110
4.3.3.2 Implications for Theoretical Perspectives 112

4.4 IMPLICATIONS OF THE CASE 114
4.4.1 Implications for Understanding Policy Development in Ontario Education 114
4.4.2 Implications for the Development of Policy by the Ministry of Education 117
4.4.2.1 Framework Construction 117
4.4.2.2 Filling the Framework with Data 119
4.4.2.3 Processing Information 120
4.4.2.4 Communication 121

4.5 BIBLIOGRAPHY 123

PART II: POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

Chapter 5: PURPOSES 127

Chapter 6: REVIEW OF LITERATURE 128

6.1 Introduction 128

6.2 Modelling the Policy Implementation Process 128
6.2.1 A review of research from non-educational contexts 128
6.2.1.1 Policy specifications 131
6.2.1.2 Organizational and political context 133
6.2.1.3 Interpretation 136
6.2.1.4 Actions 137
6.2.1.5 Outcomes 139
6.2.2 A comparison of research results from educational and non-educational settings 140
6.2.2.1 Methodological characteristics of the empirical studies 140
6.2.2.2 Results 142

6.3 Conclusion 143

Chapter 7: METHODS 152

7.1 The Survey Instrument 152

7.2 Selection of School Boards 153

7.3 The Data File 156

7.4 The Data Analysis 158

Chapter 8: RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS 160

8.1 Description of the Sample 160
    8.1.1 The Principals 160
    8.1.2 The Schools 161
    8.1.3 Implementation of OSIS 162

8.2 Research Question 1: How much influence did principals attribute to selected factors in the way they approached the implementation of OSIS? 165

8.3 Research Question 2: Were differences found among the dominant orientation of principals toward OSIS implementation which related to differences in the perceived influence of factors? 168

8.4 Research Question 3: Were differences in the principals' perceptions of the favourableness of the condition of factors related to their perceptions of the influence of those factors? 172

8.5 Research Question 4: Was the stage in the change process ("early", "at present") related to the extent of the influence of factors? 175

8.6 Research Question 5: Were differences in the principals' perceptions of the degree to which OSIS had been implemented related to differences in their perceptions of the influence of factors? 178

8.7 Research Question 6: Was there a relationship among the principals' perceptions of the influence of factors and selected background variables? 180
    8.7.1 Differences by Age 182
    8.7.2 Differences by Experience 184
    8.7.3 Differences by Sex 186
    8.7.4 Differences by Size of School 188

8.8 Research Question 7: What were principals' understandings of the main features of OSIS policy (as these differed from HS1 policy) and how did these understandings compare with the policy as specified in *Circular OSIS*? 190

8.9 Conclusion 194

8.10 Bibliography 197

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3-1: Distribution of SERP Committee Membership by Sex, Languages and Role as Educator 34

Figure 3-2: Goals of Education for Ontario 39

Figure 3-3: Committees' Responses to the Assessment and Evaluation Reports 46

Figure 4-1: Systems Theory (Dye, 1972) 81

Figure 4-2: Group Theory (Dye, 1972) 83

Figure 4-3: A Conception of Policy Options 84

Figure 6-1: The "implementation components" construct of a model of the policy implementation process 130

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4-1: A Comparison of Simeon's Independent Variables and Dye's Models 88

Table 4-2: Changes in Secondary School Policy, HS1 to OSIS 96

Table 6-1: Methodological characteristics of original empirical studies reviewed 144

Table 6-2: Correspondence of the results of the empirical studies with the results of the literature review by Leithwood and Anderson (1983) 147

Table 6-3: Detailed description of the factors influencing the implementation behaviour of principals as found in the empirical studies 149

Table 7-1: Distribution and selection of survey sample 155

Table 7-2: Basis for identifying principal's dominant orientation to OSIS implementation tasks 159

Table 8-1: Rank order of influence of factors 166

Table 8-2: The influence of factors as perceived by principals with different orientations toward OSIS implementation tasks 169

Table 8-3: The influence of clustered factors as perceived by principals with different orientations toward OSIS implementation tasks 171

Table 8-4: The relationship between perceived favourableness of the condition of factors and their perceived influence 173

Table 8-5: Changes in the influence of factors from early to later in the implementation process 176

Table 8-6: The relationship of perceived degree of OSIS implementation and influence of factors 179

Table 8-7: Factors demonstrating significant variation within selected background variables: Principal's age, years of experience as a secondary principal, sex, and size of school 181

Table 8-8: The influence of factors on principals of different ages 183

Table 8-9: The influence of factors on principals of different years of experience as secondary principals 185

Table 8-10: The influence of factors on principals of different sex 187

Table 8-11: The influence of factors on principals with schools of different sizes 189

Table 8-12: Principals' agreement with, and importance of statements about OSIS 191

ABSTRACT

This case study examines the development and implementation of secondary education policy in Ontario as defined in Ontario Schools: Intermediate and Senior Divisions (OSIS) - 1984. Data were gathered for the period from 1980 when the Secondary Education Review Project (SERP) was initiated to 1984 when the policy outlined in OSIS was to be fully implemented. Data were drawn from relevant documents, interviews with knowledgeable persons, and a survey of Ontario secondary school principals. Literature sources were reviewed to develop theoretical constructs in policy development and practical descriptors of factors and conditions which influence policy implementation.

The data were analysed to answer nineteen research questions which structured the descriptive aspects of the case study. The theoretical constructs were compared to the case study data first in terms of a narrow definition of the policy as including only that which was described in Circular OSIS; and second in terms of an expanded definition which included changes introduced through other policy vehicles and reported in Update '84. The analyses indicate that, using the narrow definition, special interest groups had less effect than the bureaucratic elite, that rationalism predominated slightly over incrementalism, and that the political system was influential largely through the actions of the Minister of Education. In the expanded definition of the policy, special interest groups had a much greater influence and incrementalism was more prominent.

The analyses also indicate that the Ministry of Education developed a model for rational decision making, used first in SERP and later adapted for the development of OSIS and the curriculum renewal activities. When compared to the model used prior to 1980 (e.g., in the HS1 Advisory Committee), the new model was found to be more environmentally sensitive and offered more extensive opportunities for participation by a broad range of stakeholders in the development of secondary curriculum.

The factors and conditions which affect policy implementation were used to construct a survey questionnaire which was distributed to 259 secondary school principals from 53 randomly selected school boards throughout Ontario. These data were analysed to determine which factors and conditions had the greatest and least effect during policy implementation activities, and are reported in Part II of this study. The results of the survey analysis were compared to results from similar surveys conducted in relation to the implementation of new special education policies (Bill 82, December 12, 1980) in Ontario.

Part II of The Study of the Development of Ontario Schools: Intermediate and Senior Divisions - 1984 (OSIS) and the Initial Phase its Implementation was a survey of factors influencing the policy implementation practices of secondary school principals. Through an extensive review of the literature of empirical policy implementation research conducted in both educational and non-educational contexts, factors were identified which appeared to influence policy implementation activities. A questionnaire elicited responses from secondary principals concerning their perceptions of the importance and condition of twenty-seven of

these factors. Principals were also asked to report on the extent to which OSIS had been implemented in their schools and on their perceptions of the policy described in Circular OSIS as compared to policies described in Circular HS1.

The questionnaire was distributed to 259 secondary school principals from 53 randomly selected school boards throughout Ontario. Useable returns were received from 159 principals or about 60 per cent of the sample. The results of the survey analysis were compared to results from similar surveys conducted in relation to the implementation of new special education policies (Bill 82) in Ontario, as reported in Trider (1985), and Trider and Leithwood (in press).

Results indicate that the most important influences on the policy implementation practices of principals are the same for elementary and secondary, male and female principals. These influences appear to be common across different types of policies. Principals' personal beliefs and professional experiences dominate the decision-making process of all principals, and increase in importance in the later stages of the implementation process.

As implementation progresses, principals are also significantly influenced by the disposition and co-operation of their staff and the quality and availability of assistance from staff (including fellow principals) outside the school. Older, more experienced principals and those with an "administrator orientation" to the role tend to be more sensitive to factors originating in the larger school system (e.g., past experiences with change in the system, preferences of central office staff). They are also more concerned with the clarity of the policy specifications themselves. Younger, less experienced principals, in contrast, are more influenced by factors originating within their own schools (e.g., willingness of staff to co-operate). The clarity of written policy appears to be somewhat less important to them.

The data on OSIS implementation indicates that the administrative aspects of OSIS were perceived by principals to have been fully implemented by 1986 but that the philosophical intent of the policy had yet to be implemented within courses and integrated into classroom activities.

Principals' perceptions of the policies described in OSIS differed from those of the research team on four policy items. Principals perceived OSIS as stating that OACs would be more prescriptive than Grade 13 courses; the research team could find no such statement in Circular OSIS. Differences in perceptions between the principals and the research team on the remaining three items were marginal and resulted from the research team's strict reading of the policy specifications (rather than its intent or consequences). Principals perceived OSIS as having reduced the importance of technical courses although perhaps not intentionally; as encouraging semestering; and as not increasing the attention paid to non-university bound students. The research team's reading of OSIS policy indicated that the importance of technical courses was not reduced, semestering was not encouraged (although flexibility in timetabling was), and more attention was paid to the non-university bound student.

Principals expressed major concerns about the overall effect of OSIS policy on students working at the general level, and on courses and schools which had been operating at the modified-basic level prior to the implementation of OSIS.

PART I:

THE DEVELOPMENT AND INITIATION OF OSIS

Chapter 1

PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

1.1 BACKGROUND

New requirements for Ontario school curricula, as outlined in the curriculum circular Ontario Schools: Intermediate and Senior Divisions (1984), were developed and initiated through a process of extensive data collection, and the development, review and refinement of draft policy. These activities allowed those with a stake in secondary education to express their views. Processes used in conjunction with the subsequent development and implementation of policies related to OSIS (as well as to Bill 82 which amended the Education Act) appear to be the result of a strong desire on the part of Ministry of Education officials to act in accordance with contemporary knowledge about effective procedures for the implementation of educational change. The present study was designed to review the development and implementation processes used in conjunction with OSIS, to relate these to what is already known about such processes, and to contribute to the body of knowledge in this field.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

The specific objectives of the study were:

- To outline the general context and identify the specific, critical events which led to the establishment of the Secondary Education Review Project (SERP) in April 1980;

- To describe the policy development and pre-implementation processes which began with the establishment of SERP and ended with the publication of Ontario Schools: Intermediate and Senior Divisions (OSIS) in 1983;

- To describe the actions taken by the Ministry of Education to orient school boards to OSIS policy and its implementation during the 1983-84 period;

- To describe the pre-implementation activities taken by school boards in relation to OSIS during the 1984-85 period;

- To explain how and why changes took place as they did through the April 1980 to September 1984 period of OSIS development and initiation; and

- To identify implications from the OSIS experience for the planning, development, implementation and monitoring of future ministry policies.

1.3 SPECIFIC RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to meet the objectives outlined for the research, given the broad perspectives toward OSIS-related processes, the following questions were addressed:

1. What social, economic, political, educational, and other 'conditions' appeared to foster public and government interest in secondary education policies and practices in the period leading up to the Secondary Education Review Project (SERP)?
2. What 'events' seemed to lead to the 1980 decisions by the Minister of Education to review secondary education policies and practices?
3. What aspects of these 'conditions' and 'events' precipitated the decision to establish SERP?
4. Why did the Minister choose to review secondary education policies and practices by establishing SERP rather than by using some other mechanism?
5. How and why were the structures and functions of SERP established?
6. How might the objectives established by the Ministry of Education have affected the work of the SERP committees?
7. How were the members of SERP chosen, on what basis and what tasks were they expected to carry out?
8. What processes led to the generation of the original set of data collected by SERP?
9. What decision-making processes were followed within the SERP committees?
10. How did SERP committee members move from their original data base to the 101 recommendations published in the Discussion Paper in April 1981?
11. How did the SERP committee members move from the responses to the Discussion Paper to the Final Report in October 1981?
12. What were the effects of the policy development initiatives after April 1980:
    - On the public at large?
    - On the Ministry of Education?
    - On provincial education associations?
    - On school boards?

13. What activities did the ministry undertake to respond to and implement SERP recommendations?

14. How did the persons chosen to respond to SERP move from the recommendations in the Final Report to new policies for secondary education and the development of OSIS, and what influenced this movement?

15. What orientation activities were undertaken by the ministry, and how were these activities selected?

16. What were the effects of orientation activities in terms of the array of implementation activities initiated by school boards?

17. What obstacles were encountered by school boards in implementing OSIS, and how were these obstacles overcome?

18. What problems were encountered by the Ministry of Education in implementing OSIS and how were these problems overcome?

19. What factors appeared to have the most/least effect on the initiation of OSIS implementation?

An additional question of interest in the study and mentioned in section 1.1, Background, concerned the relevance of various theories of policy development and implementation in helping to understand OSIS-related processes. In Chapter 4, the literature relevant to this question is reviewed, and our data describing OSIS development and implementation are explicitly examined from the perspective of this literature.

Chapter 2

METHODS

2.1 OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH METHODS

The following tasks were carried out to answer the research questions and meet the general purposes of the study:

- The literature on policy development was reviewed. The results of this review appear in Chapter 4.

- A complete file of documents relevant to policy development activities, as outlined in the SERP papers and selected Ministry of Education documents, and to policy implementation activities were collected.

- All documents in the file were analysed for information concerning the nineteen research questions outlined in Chapter 1. Detailed analyses of these questions are included in the appendices, and summaries are reported in Chapter 3. Additional analyses of these and other data were carried out to test the applicability of the alternative theoretical perspectives on policy development and initiation as outlined in Chapter 4.

- Interviews were conducted with knowledgeable persons. Edited versions of individual interviews appear in the appendices of this report.[1] Data from the interviews were integrated with other types of data to answer the nineteen research questions.

2.2 THE DOCUMENT FILE

Documents for the period 1979 through 1984 were collected and/or notes made on the documents available to the research team. The document file was turned over to the Ministry of Education. Notes on relevant documents are appended to this report.

Some difficulties were encountered in collecting the documents. First, the ministry's outline for the proposed research led the research team to believe that an "implementation file" on school board activities related to OSIS existed in ONTERIS. This belief was erroneous. In fact, the files were kept in various regional offices. The problem which the research team encountered was one of terminology. ONTERIS appears to maintain two types of files. One type contains documents which can be accessed through on-line abstracts or microfiche. The other type, referred to as a "working file" contains raw data which can be accessed through various statistical reporting procedures. When the project began, the

---

[1] The appendices are available only on microfiche.

research team had no knowledge of the second type of file and spent considerable time searching through the first type for non-existent information. The ministry could facilitate the work of researchers if the type of ONTERIS file to be used was specified in the research outline.

Second, in order to obtain a complete set of documents, we had to draw on a variety of sources:

- Documents from the SERP Secretariat's working files - five storage boxes were missing for six months of this project, and eventually discovered by the research officer. This material came from the file cabinets maintained by the secretary for the Secretariat of SERP. The files themselves were incomplete.

- Documents from the OISE archival holdings (approximately fifteen storage boxes). Most of these documents were submissions received by SERP in the form of briefs, letters and petitions, and the accompanying responses from the ministry. Most submissions were microfiched by ONTERIS, and most of these were available through the OISE Library. However, two boxes in this group did not contain submissions, and appeared to be part of the five boxes described above. The two boxes contained materials on the organization and administration of a symposium, and copies of the presentations; and binders containing copies of the Assessment, Evaluation, and Reaction Reports.

- Documents held by Duncan Green (chairman of the project), working copies of materials used by the four SERP committees. There were documents in this set which were not available elsewhere.

- Documents related to SERP, particularly responses to the Final Report, which were filed in the Ministry of Education's Senior and Continuing Education Branch for 1982 and 1983.

- Documents related to HS1, for 1979, provided by Jack Bell. Back-up material was obtained through a doctoral thesis written by Peter Baker (1985).

- Documents related to the Renewal of Secondary Education (ROSE) Report and Circular OSIS from the Senior and Continuing Education Branch files for 1982 and 1983, and the Curriculum Branch for 1984.

- Documents for November and December 1981 were not available. A doctoral thesis written by William Lambie (1985) provided a secondary source for this material. His files, which appeared to be complete for November 1981 to December 1983, were available through the Peel Board of Education.

- Documents related to the implementation of OSIS at the regional and school board levels were provided by Jack Sullivan, Director of the Northeastern Regional Office, and Jean Comtois, Director of the Eastern Regional Office.

Wherever possible, photocopies of documents were made for the document file compiled by the research project. When this was not possible, notes were made about the document and its contents.

Whenever a document was mentioned as having been used as background reading for committee members, an attempt was made to obtain a copy of this document for the files. The practical limitations of the project budget precluded the purchase of documents readily available through OISE Library holdings.

All documents used to provide background data for this project are listed in Appendix U.

The following documents were never found:

- The framework proposed by Charles Pascal, a member of the SERP Steering Committee, for the Assessment Report (see Steering Committee meeting 2, Appendix H). It seems unlikely that this outline would have changed the analysis; however, the minutes for the second meeting of the Steering Committee are incomplete without it.

- Design Committee minutes for meetings 2 and 3 (Appendix L). It is apparent from notes found in material provided from Duncan Green's files that no formal minutes were prepared and that the various drafts of the Discussion Paper, plus marginal notes on these drafts, were the only written record of these two meetings.

- A report referred to as the "Compilation Report" (see Design Committee meeting 1, Appendix L). Discussions with various persons, and a very careful reading of the page numbers referred to in the minutes, suggests that this document consisted of the introductory pages of the Assessment, Evaluation, and Reaction Reports, the "Possible Directions" proposed in the Assessment Report, the responses to each of these in the Evaluation and Reaction Reports, and the recommendation of the Steering Committee based on these responses.

The difficulties encountered in amassing these documents suggest that the Ministry of Education could assist in its own continuing self-monitoring by paying some attention to the maintenance of complete files. While we recognize that this task may be more than busy ministry officials can manage, it seems likely that a member of the secretarial staff could be assigned the responsibility for collecting all relevant documents at the end of meetings and for producing a permanent file copy.

It is apparent that the Curriculum Division is already doing this. The research officer found the files for 1984 well-organized and cross-referenced. However, there is a problem even within the current system. Most secretaries do not know, indeed cannot know, how various documents relate to each other. It would be helpful for future research activities of this type if ministry officials could indicate how documents should be cross-referenced when they give such material to the secretarial staff to be filed.

Finally, there appears to be no mention of the maintenance of files in the literature on policy development and policy implementation. An efficient and effective file system might help complex organizations, such as a Ministry of Education, keep self-monitoring systems in place and reduce the likelihood that staff efforts will be duplicated or faulty procedures repeated.

2.3 DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

Documents were divided among the five members of the research team and analysed primarily in terms of the research questions, and secondarily in relation to the theoretical concepts derived from the literature review. These analyses appear in Chapter 3.

Documents were classified for analysis as follows:

Pre-SERP Documents:

1. Minutes of the 1979-80 meetings of the HS1 Advisory Committee (Appendix E).

2. Related documents including memoranda written by Ministry of Education officials and statements by the Minister of Education (Appendix E).

3. Research documents by the OSSTF Research Committee (1976), Warren and King (1979), Baker (1985), King (1980) (Appendix D).

4. Articles from newspapers 1977 to 1980 (Appendix B).

5. Surveys of public opinion (Livingstone, 1978; Livingstone and Hart, 1979, 1980) (Appendix C).

6. The Cabinet Submission related to the development and initiation of the Secondary Education Review Project (Appendix F).

SERP Documents:

1. Minutes of meetings:
    a. Steering Committee: minutes of 22 meetings held between April 1, 1980 and October 29, 1981 (numbered meetings 1 through 22), and the attached documents distributed at each meeting (Appendix H).
    b. Evaluation Committee: minutes of 6 meetings held between October 2-3, 1980 and January 22-24, 1981, and the attached documents distributed at each meeting (Appendix J).
    c. Reaction Committee: minutes of 3 meetings held, November 11-13, 1980, February 5-7, 1981 and February 19-21, 1981, and the attached documents distributed at each meeting (Appendix K).

   d. Design Committee: minutes of a meeting held March 4-7, 1981, and attachments (Appendix L).

2. SERP Reports (working drafts and final versions) - summaries of these reports were not developed except were necessary for the analysis since the complete reports are available in ONTERIS:
   a. Assessment Report
   b. Evaluation Report
   c. Reaction Report
   d. Discussion Paper
   e. Final SERP Report

3. Symposium reports: summaries of presentations made at the SERP Symposium held September 14-17, 1980, and of the small group discussions (Appendix I).

4. Reports of school and community visits: summary reports of visits made to schools and communities throughout Ontario by members of the secretariat between May 1980 and June 1981 (Appendix N).

5. Related documents:
   a. Statements made by the Minister of Education to the legislature and on television.
   b. Public relations material: prepared by the Steering Committee and the secretariat to inform the public about the Project and the Discussion Paper, including several editions of Education Ontario.
   c. Miscellaneous notes on the selection of SERP Committee members (Appendix G).
   d. Letters and memos written between committee members and the secretariat, and between the secretariat and various other persons (Deputy Minister and Assistant Deputy Minister of Education, private citizens, organizations, etc.) (Appendix M).
   e. Selected responses to the Discussion Paper.
   f. Results of pertinent research studies, in particular the study by Alan King on Achievement of Ontario Grade 13 Students in University, the only study directly commissioned for the Project (Appendix M).
   g. Working papers and minutes related to the ministry's Strategic Planning Task Group.

Post-SERP Documents:

1. Research document by Lambie (1985) (Appendix O).

2. Minutes of meetings (Appendices P, Q and R):
   a. SERP Internal Steering Committee.
   b. Other Committees.

3. Copies of draft versions of "Report of the Secondary Education Review Project and Program Planning for 1982-1990" (later Renewal of the Secondary Schools in Ontario) (Appendix P).

4. Related documents (1982-1984) including memoranda written by Ministry of Education officials, letters written between ministry officials and other persons, speeches, miscellaneous notes on speeches and meetings with agencies and groups outside the ministry (Appendices P, Q and R).

5. Documents compiled by regional offices of the Ministry of Education regarding implementation activities (1983-1984) (Appendices Q and R).

6. The Ministry of Education report entitled Update '84: Results of Initiatives Identified in Issues and Directions (Appendix S).

Pre-SERP documents were content analysed for indicators of events and conditions which precipitated the development and implementation of SERP, to determine how the SERP project was designed and by whom, and for indications of why the Minister of Education selected the SERP process rather than some other mechanism to review secondary education.

SERP documents were content analysed for indicators of the effects of project objectives, generation of a data base, sources of change, the nature of decision-making processes, and relative support for different theories of policy development. Related documents were reviewed to determine how committee members were selected, how the original data bases were generated, and for potential sources of changes.

Post-SERP documents were content analysed for indicators of activities undertaken by the ministry to respond to and implement the SERP recommendations, the persons involved, the factors which influenced the development of the Renewal of Secondary Education (ROSE) and Ontario Schools: Intermediate and Senior Divisions (OSIS), and activities undertaken by the ministry, school boards, and schools to implement the policies outlined in OSIS.

2.4 INTERVIEWS

Interviews were conducted with twenty-one persons:

- Bette Stephenson, Minister of Education, to 1985.
- George Podrebarac, Assistant Deputy Minister, Education Programs Division and, from 1984, Deputy Minister of Education.
- Doug Penny, Assistant Deputy Minister, Planning and Policy Analysis Division.
- Patrick Fleck, Executive Director, SERP Secretariat and, from 1982, Director, Special Projects Branch.
- Duncan Green, Chairman of SERP, and, from 1984, Assistant Deputy Minister, Education Programs Division.

- Jack Bell, member, SERP Secretariat and Education Officer, Curriculum Branch.
- Morris Liebovitz, member, SERP Secretariat and Education Officer, Curriculum Branch.
- Jacques Giroux, member, SERP Secretariat; Education Officer, Curriculum Branch, Franco-Ontarian Education and, from 1984, Central Ontario Region.
- William Lambie, Director, Senior and Continuing Education Branch from 1981 to 1983; Superintendent of Instruction, Peel Board of Education.
- Jack Sullivan, Regional Director, Northeastern Ontario Region.
- Margaret Wilson, member, SERP Steering Committee; past-President, OSSTF; and Secretary-Treasurer, OTF.
- Thomas Bolton, member, SERP Steering Committee and past-Deputy Chairman, Dominion Stores Limited.
- Charles Pascal, member, SERP Steering Committee and President, Sir Sandford Fleming College of Applied Arts and Technology.
- William Curtis, member, SERP Evaluation Committee and Manager, Employee Relations, Algoma Steel Corporation.
- Robert Sampson, member, SERP Evaluation Committee and past-President OSSHC.
- Michael Cobden, member, SERP Reaction Committee and Editorial Page Editor, Kingston Whig Standard.
- Michael Connelly, member, SERP Design Committee and Professor, Department of Curriculum, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.
- Thomas Matsushita, member, SERP Design Committee; Project Manager, Discipline Guideline Committee; and Superintendent of Education, Lincoln County Board of Education.
- Fran Poleschuk, Director, Elementary Education Branch.
- R.G. (Des) Dixon, past-Executive Director, OTF.
- Edward Monahan, Executive Director, COU.

The interviews with Doug Penny and Bill Lambie were lost through faulty equipment and the inability of the interviewer to recall enough from these interviews to write up a complete set of notes. Recorded interviews were transcribed; other interviews were reported through notes made by the interviewer. The interview data were integrated to provide answers to the nineteen research questions. These data were then integrated with the data from the document analyses.

Permission to publish edited versions of the interviews was sought and obtained from sixteen interviewees. Copies of these interviews appear in Appendix T. Transcripts of other interviews are on file in the project office.

Chapter 3

RESULTS

The primary analysis of the data gathered from documents and interviews addressed the nineteen research questions outlined above. This analysis is reported by question as a chronology of events and outcomes prior to, during, and following the Secondary Education Review Project. For each question, the major sources of data are indicated.

The secondary analysis addressed a series of issues which either emerged as the primary analysis progressed or is related to the theoretical models of policy development and implementation outlined in Chapter 4.

3.1 ANALYSIS OF PRE-SERP ACTIVITIES

3.1.1 Question 1: Background Conditions

° What social, economic, political, educational and other 'conditions' appeared to foster public and government interest in secondary education policies and practices in the period leading up to SERP?

This question was answered by drawing on data described in the newspaper files (Appendix A), the public polls related to education (Appendix C), miscellaneous pre-SERP documents (Appendix D), the HS1 Advisory Committee minutes (Appendix E), and the interviews (Appendix T).

Background conditions can be described under a variety of labels. Almost any analysis would have led to overlapping categories. Those which seem most relevant for background to this study are:

1. Conditions of concern to those outside the secondary education system who receive students when they leave it - preparation for the world of work (business and industry), preparation for post-secondary education (universities and colleges), drop-outs, discipline, vandalism and unemployment (parents and the general public);

2. Conditions of concern to secondary educators - the credit system, the number and type of compulsory credits, Grade 13, students working at the general level, the integration of special education into the curriculum, counselling students, funding cutbacks, the system's response to declining enrolments, the use of new technologies, and policy-making;

3. Conditions of concern to special interest groups - education for French-speaking students (Franco-Ontarian), education in both English and French as a second language (federal and provincial governments), education about the students' cultural heritage (various cultural

groups), educational provisions for students with special needs (special education groups), sex equity in learning experiences and curriculum materials (women's groups), and the provision of educational choices in small, remote or isolated secondary schools (Northern schools, French-Language Instructional Units, small schools in small boards).

Concerns from Outside the System

By 1979, enrolment had begun to decline in the secondary schools as the bulk of the baby-boomers left. Youth unemployment increased, and demands on university and community college facilities rose. Employers and post-secondary educators alike were confronted with an increasing number (although not necessarily an increasing proportion) of young adults who were not well prepared for either the world of work or for further academic studies. Blame for this condition was placed on the secondary schools (Livingstone and Hart, 1979). The problem was variously described as "lack of basic literacy" (the universities and colleges discovered more and more students who could not read and write adequately), "lack of basic skills" (employers discovered students could not spell or compute), "too much permissiveness" (too little school work to do and too much spare time), and "lack of proper attitudes" (not well-behaved, discourteous).

Four issues emerge from these interpretations. First, the concerns of those outside the education system were focused on the output side of the enterprise (Fleck interview), on the quality of students leaving the system, and the relative proportions of drop-outs, graduates with SSGDs and SSHGDs, and Ontario scholarship recipients (Appendix E). For example, it was assumed by some that an increase in the rate at which scholarships were being awarded was indicative of lower standards (Appendix B).

Second, no single definition of what constituted basic knowledge and skills was determined. The universities' concept of basic literacy (ability to read and write at the university level) was not at all similar to the general concept of functional literacy (completion of grade 8) (cf. MacKeracher, 1979). Manpower and employment concepts of what constituted a skilled worker ranged from those who could read, write, spell and compute, had good work attitudes, and could be trained on-the-job (Bolton interview), to those who were prepared to do highly-skilled technological work following training in the educational system (Liebovitz interview).

The universities had two concerns. One was the fact that no standard core curriculum existed (Bell interview). Students often arrived in first year with wide variations in background knowledge. The other concern was the lack of any standard way to judge how teachers had assessed student performance in assigning final marks, the basis for admission to the university (Monahan interview). These two concerns were accompanied by a request for a core of basic skills and knowledge in each subject area, and a return to provincial examinations to determine at least part of students' final marks; the alternative proposed by the universities was the imposition of entrance examinations (Appendix B).

The lack of highly skilled workers was an embarrassment for the government since employers were still hiring skilled workers from other countries, even after a decade of special manpower training programs, and in the face of rising unemployment among Ontario youth (Liebovitz interview). While there was much talk about a "back-to-the-basics" movement, no one ever defined what "basics" meant.[2] In the 1978 and 1979 OISE surveys of public attitudes toward education, a majority of respondents assigned job preparation as the highest curriculum priority for secondary schools (Livingstone, 1978; Livingstone and Hart, 1979). In the OSSTF survey (OSSTF, 1976), teachers assigned much lower importance to job preparation as an educational goal than parents and students.

Third, unemployment rates had increased among drop-outs, secondary graduates and post-secondary graduates. It seems unlikely that unemployment rates could be attributable to secondary education but rather should have been attributed to the lack of skilled workers trained in employable areas and to declining job opportunities. However, half the respondents in the 1979 OISE survey attributed youth unemployment to deficiencies in the school system (Livingstone and Hart, 1979). The Warren and King study (1979) found little fit between the content of general level courses and job requirements for both graduates and drop-outs. They reported that graduates had only a slight advantage in terms of the skill level and wages in the jobs they received on exit from school, and were only slightly less likely to be unemployed. Both drop-outs and graduates entered jobs with little career opportunity.

Fourth, the only issue on which there was much agreement was that secondary students lacked discipline and proper attitudes. The concepts of "discipline" and "proper attitudes" most often were related both to a disciplined work ethic - that is, punctuality, commitment to work, and dedication to one's employer; and to socially acceptable behaviour - that is, politeness, deference to adults, and respect for the rights and property of others. The 1979 and 1980 OISE surveys (Livingstone and Hart, 1979, 1980) listed "discipline" as the major public concern, and as the greatest problem facing schools in general. The majority of respondents believed the schools were too permissive. Livingstone and Hart (1979) reported that, in national surveys, concerns about permissiveness had increased steadily since 1954, and were shared by all segments of the population. However, the solution to the problem of "discipline" was divided: some respondents wanted to give more power to the school principal to instill authority; others to give responsibility to public authorities (Livingstone and Hart, 1979); still others to help students learn greater self-discipline (Cobden interview). Few wished to return to the era of the highly authoritarian teacher (Livingstone and Hart, 1979).

---

[2] This problem persisted and the writing team that began preparation of a document on Basic Level Courses in 1983 (Appendix Q) found that it had to write a section explaining the relationship of basic level courses to basic skills and knowledge in general and advanced level courses.

Concerns from Inside the Secondary System

In reviewing the concerns expressed by persons who were working inside the secondary education system, most appear to be related to the first item of unfinished business described by Bernard Shapiro in his summation of the SERP Symposium (Appendix I): that when Ontario decided to expand the participation rate in secondary education, it called upon secondary educators to provide a range of programs that corresponded closely to the range of life and career patterns of secondary students. The range of these patterns had increased over the decade since the credit system had been introduced, most existing curriculum guidelines had been written, and the majority of teachers and counsellors had been trained. The concerns of those within the secondary system focused largely on goals for the system, the delivery of services to support such goals, and the organization of the curriculum to meet different student needs.

The system, as it was organized in 1979, was well-designed to meet those life and career patterns which required academic preparation (i.e., 5-year and advanced level students going on to university), but was ill-prepared to serve those patterns which led to immediate employment (i.e., 2-year and basic level students) or to further training in technical and vocational areas (i.e., 4-year and general level students going to community colleges) (Appendix E, Stephenson, Wilson interviews).

It was assumed that the introduction of Bill 82 would eventually lead to more appropriate courses and curriculum for students working at the basic level, and to meet the needs of special students (i.e., through modified basic level courses and enriched advanced level courses), although curriculum documents had not yet been prepared to facilitate these changes (Podrebarac interview). However, a major concern was that nothing was being done for students working at the general level (Stephenson, Wilson interviews).[3]

The 1980 OISE survey reported that, between 1978 and 1980, public support for basic skills in the high school curriculum had increased (Livingstone and Hart, 1980). Respondents supported the need for more compulsory courses than existed at that time. The HS1 Advisory Committee, in discussing the number of credits required for graduation and the appropriateness of required subjects, agreed that the number of credits for the SSGD would be increased from seven to nine (Appendix E). The committee also discussed general dissatisfaction with the credit system. The definition of a credit as "110 hours of teaching time" did not appear to fit the needs of some subjects such as technical studies (Appendix E). A research study by King (1980) reported that there were fewer SSGDs earned, more failures, and more drop-outs after the adoption of the credit system. The study concluded that the credit system had benefited good students, but that general level students were not being well prepared for community colleges or employment (Appendix E).

---

[3] OSIS specifically states that it is the courses which are defined by level, not the students; however, students are also defined as advanced, general and basic students on the basis of the level of courses they are taking in English and Mathematics (see memo, September 20, 1983, Appendix Q).

Surveys conducted by the OSSTF in 1974-75 found strong teacher support for the credit system. By 1976 criticisms which were heard from teachers and others about the credit system included:

- Widespread variation in the standards between schools both in what was taught and in how students' progress was evaluated;
- Claims about freedom of student choice were meaningless in small secondary schools which were unable to offer a variety of course options;
- Demands to provide individualized programs and student counselling were increasing teacher workloads and depressing morale;
- Credits for easy courses were assigned the same value as credits for hard courses, and the student transcript did not distinguish between them;
- Student work habits were a concern to 75 per cent of teachers;
- The number and type of credits required for an SSGD should be revised.

In 1979, the educators on the HS1 Advisory Committee struggled with these issues. They talked extensively about how to modify the credit system and curriculum guidelines to accommodate the necessary changes, and to meet the diverse array of student needs (Appendix E). They did not appear to have a philosophical or educational framework within which to recommend modifications to the existing policy (see Ertis letter, March 25, 1980, Appendix M). Their activities and recommendations were ultimately perceived as "tinkering" with a system which required a more extensive overhaul (Stephenson interview).

Concerns from Special Interest Groups

Concerns were expressed by special interest groups both inside and outside the secondary educational system. The resolution of these concerns would not have required an extensive review of the system. Most could have been resolved through such activities as: the publication of new curriculum guides and in-service education (e.g., for changes in special education programs); changes in the curriculum (e.g., for cultural studies); an extension of the school day (e.g., for heritage languages); the introduction of a French as a second language credit (i.e., for English-speaking students); changes in the policies described in HS1 (e.g., for sex equity); and changes in curriculum materials (e.g., for French-language Instructional Units, cultural studies, sex equity and northern schools). Small, remote northern secondary schools required an infusion of funds for the technological equipment and learning materials to provide better educational opportunities using distance education modes of delivery.

The changes requested by Franco-Ontarians would have required a major modification of the attitudes of ministry officials toward the aspirations of the French-speaking minority and major changes in the Education Act. These changes did not occur because of SERP, even though the final SERP report recommended one major change, but because of the watch-dog activities (Giroux interview) of the Franco-Ontarian community throughout the period from 1979 to 1984, because of the rapid increase in the number of students requesting admission to French-language Instructional Units (both native French-speaker programs and immersion programs) (Appendix D); and because the ministry either remained silent on the educational issue of whether unilingual or bilingual schools were better in educational terms (even though bilingual schools were preferred in political terms) (Appendix D) or resisted the legal issue of modifying the Education Act (Appendix B).

3.1.2 Question 2: Background Events

° What 'events' seemed to lead to the 1980 decision by the Minister of Education to review secondary education policies and practices?

This question was answered by drawing on the data in the newspaper file (Appendix B), the public polls on education (Appendix B), miscellaneous pre-SERP documents (Appendix D), the HS1 Advisory Committee minutes (Appendix E) and the interviews (Appendix T).

Ministry officials felt there was a natural cycle of curriculum renewal (Stephenson, Podrebarac, Fleck interviews). The Robarts Plan had lasted ten years before it was replaced and, in 1979, the credit system had already been in place for ten years (Fleck interview). In the cyclical timetable of CRDI, it was time for a review of the senior division. Reviews of primary and junior education had been completed in the early 1970s with the publication of Circulars P1J1 and EPJD. A review of the Intermediate Division had been done, and a draft of "Circular I1: The Intermediate Years" produced. However, the document proved to be unsatisfactory because it was perceived as having been too strongly influenced by elementary educators (Appendix E), and as not meeting the needs of both elementary and secondary schools (Podrebarac interview). Ministry officials, therefore, were of the opinion that it was time to do a review of secondary education which would include both the Intermediate and Senior Divisions (Podrebarac, Fleck interviews).

Baker (1985) argued in his thesis that the controversy surrounding discussions of the proposed merger of the Ministry of College and Universities and the Ministry of Education brought to the surface a great deal of discontent with the credit system and with the means used by the Ministry of Education to set policy. This discontent increased the Minister's motivation to act because she was chairman of both ministries.

Baker (1985) also reported that the development of the Goals for Education in Ontario, and the subsequent publication of *Issues and Directions* (1980), contributed to changing conceptions of the secondary school. This concern about the philosophical underpinnings was visible in the development of many other ministry documents in the same period (*Circular P1J1*, *Circular EPJD*, *Circular I1*, etc.). Further, changes in the internal structure of the ministry had placed elementary and senior education into separate branches within the Curriculum Development Division, and had linked senior with continuing education. This linkage was seen as having a negative effect on the development of a satisfactory curriculum for the Intermediate Division (Appendix E). The elementary-secondary interface presented a problem which ministry officials believed needed to be examined in a larger context (Podrebarac interview).

The Minister may also have been influenced by the policies of other Canadian provinces. She was Chairman of the Council of Ministers of Education in 1979. It was readily apparent that Ontario's secondary school practices, particularly decentralized control over curriculum, Grade 13, and the low number of compulsory credits, were not shared by the majority of other provinces.[4] The completion of the OECD review of education in Canada (OECD, 1976) had required each province to prepare a review of its educational system. With the encouragement of both OECD and CMEC, many provinces embarked on more extensive reviews of the quality of education and its attendant delivery systems in the late 1970s. For example, Quebec and Newfoundland had begun reviews of their educational systems at all levels. Alberta had begun an extensive study of student achievement, and a review of elementary and secondary education. Manitoba, which had completed a review of education in 1973, was engaged in a massive redesign of the elementary and secondary curriculum (Connelly et al., 1985). Other countries were also engaged in similar reviews at about the same time. The apparent preoccupation of educators with secondary education had become a phenomenon in the late 1970s (Fleck interview).

Other events reported by persons interviewed and mentioned in documents as having influenced the establishment and organization of SERP included:

- The publication of the Secondary-Post-secondary interface studies (e.g., King, 1976);
- The publication of the OSSTF review of secondary education in 1976 (OSSTF, 1976);
- The statement issued by the CMEC in 1978 which supported the right of all French-speaking students to an education in their mother tongue (CMEC, 1983);
- The publication of the Warren and King (1978) study on the school-to-work issue;

---

[4] However, the majority of Canadian secondary students (i.e., those in Ontario and Quebec) participated in 13 years of schooling prior to university entrance (Wilson interview). Twelve years of schooling was the pattern in all other provinces except Newfoundland which introduced a twelfth grade in 1983.

- The publication of the OISE surveys on public attitudes toward education in Ontario (Livingstone, 1978; Livingstone and Hart, 1979, 1980);

- The publication of the Jackson report on declining enrolments (Jackson, 1979) and the ministry's response in Issues and Directions (1980);

- The introduction of Bill 82 on Special Education (1982); and

- Activities related to OAIP (Ministry of Education, 1979).

Finally, The HS1 Advisory Committee had been meeting throughout 1979 with the intention of preparing a new Circular HS1, 1982-84. The committee's mandate was to review issues relevant to secondary education, and to recommend changes in the policy outlined in Circular HS1 to the Minister. The committee, as with all such committees within the ministry, was expected to submit its recommendations through the normal lines of authority (i.e., branch director, division executive director, assistant deputy minister, and deputy minister). On the way up, any recommendation could be endorsed, modified or withheld (Fleck interview). When Stephenson was appointed Minister of Education, she was concerned that many good ideas were being side-tracked, and many good people were not being heard (Stephenson interview). The ministry, therefore, began to move away from communication through the traditional lines of authority to a more collegial model. In this new approach a memo or letter was sent to one's immediate supervisor for the attention of someone higher in the line. Such a message had to be passed on to the person to whom it was directed although proposed modifications and/or comments could be attached by those who read it as it passed up the line of authority (Bell interview).

The HS1 Advisory Committee had evolved over a ten-year period to include not only ministry officials and school principals, but also administrators, trustees, and teachers (Appendix D). Circular HS1 originally addressed only administrative policies. By 1979, the committee was considering the inclusion of material that addressed the philosophical basis of education and educational services (Podrebarac interview). In addition, some members saw the committee as an educational group that should not concern itself with political questions, particularly those regarding minority language credits (Appendix E). Committee positions tended to be formulated on the basis of educational considerations, whereas many of the issues confronting the committee in 1979 were political and economic, as well as educational, in nature.

Before developing a new version of Circular HS1, committee members discussed the issues which would need to be addressed if changes were to be made. Members raised some of their own issues and were asked by ministry officials to consider several basic changes, such as the introduction of a compulsory physical education credit (Wilson interview). Bell's description of the committee's activities during 1979 (Bell interview) indicate that the members were experiencing a number of dilemmas which resulted in indecision on most issues. To help deal with the impasse, Bell wrote a proposal which described a review process to be conducted by the committee during 1980 and 1981. The proposal indicated that the review process would begin with a Curriculum Policy Conference to be attended by ministry officials and committee members and that the major issues would be identified, relevant information gathered, and possible policy directions discussed. This would be followed by a series of internal meetings at which consensus would be reached on each issue, and relevant policy would then be drafted. A draft document would be prepared, and sent out to educators (schools, boards, trustees, federations, universities, colleges, etc.) for validation. The document would then be revised on the basis of opinions received, and the final version of Circular HS1, 1982-83 would be ready for full implementation in September 1982 (Appendix E).

This proposal was sent, with the approval of the HS1 Advisory Committee, through the ministry's line of communication to the Minister. On the way up the line, the document acquired a number of memos and hand-written notes which indicated that, while the idea of the review was acceptable, the HS1 Advisory Committee was not viewed as the best group for managing the review process (Appendix E).

3.1.3 Question 3: Precipitating Factors

- What aspects of these 'conditions' and 'events' precipitated the decision to establish SERP?

This question was answered by drawing on data found in miscellaneous pre-SERP documents (Appendix D), the HS1 Advisory Committee minutes (Appendix E), and the interviews (Appendix T).

Three precipitating factors appear to have been crucial in setting up the secondary education review. First, the general view of ministry officials was that it was time, in late 1979, to conduct a review of the Senior Division, and that, since the review of the Intermediate Division had not been satisfactory, both Intermediate and Senior Divisions should be reviewed together (Podrebarac, Fleck interviews).

Second, when the Honourable Bette Stephenson was appointed as the Minister of Education, her first action was to assess the general condition of educational services in the province. She was very concerned when she learned that the intermediate review had run into difficulty, and that a log jam had developed because problems related to the Intermediate Division had to be resolved before changes could be introduced into the Senior Division (Stephenson, Podrebarac interviews). She was also concerned when she learned that an extensive review of secondary education had not preceded the introduction of the credit system (Stephenson, Podrebarac interviews).

While Baker (1985) argued in his thesis that the team which wrote the SERP proposal was heavily influenced by legislative debates, particularly NDP criticism of education, Stephenson and Podrebarac, when interviewed for this study, stated that political pressure was not relevant to the decision to conduct a review of secondary education. The pressures that existed were experienced by ministry personnel as educational and organizational rather than political in nature (Stephenson, Podrebarac interviews).

Third, senior ministry staff were in agreement that fundamental changes were required in secondary school organization but believed that the HS1 Advisory Committee was suitable only for addressing cosmetic changes to Circular HS1 1979-81 (Appendix E, Podrebarac interview).

A decision to drop the confidentiality of the HS1 Advisory Committee deliberations and to enlarge the constituencies represented had been well received across the province. The Minister wanted to maintain this type of open communication, and to involve an even larger number of groups in discussions about educational issues (Stephenson interview). Baker (1985) reported that Stephenson, in contrast with Wells, did not feel that more extensive consultation with educational professionals was necessary. She did believe, however, that the views of all interest groups, including students, parents, and those agencies which received students from the secondary schools, must also be heard before extensive changes could be made in policy (Stephenson interview).

The only questions which had to be resolved were who would do the review, what interest groups would be represented on the review body, how the review would be conducted, and what would be included in it. These questions were resolved by extending the Bell proposal for a review of secondary education which would include a conference or symposium, with the newly-appointed Minister's expressed desire that any review committee should not be confined to professional educators. Bell's original proposal was transformed by a team of assistant deputy ministers led by Podrebarac and Penny. The resulting proposal, as outlined in the Cabinet Submission (Appendix F), was prepared over a period of three months and the project became operational on April 1, 1980. The HS1 Advisory Committee was shelved in March 1980. Further changes to Circular HS1 were made on a yearly basis by the staff of the Senior and Continuing Education Branch (Podrebarac interview).

The establishment of SERP was first broached at the February meeting of the OSSHC. Stephenson reported that she decided to announce the project to this group first because the group had had major input to the HS1 Advisory Committee, and its individual members were those who would have to implement any changes recommended by the final report (Stephenson interview).

3.1.4 Question 4: Choice of SERP Process

- Why did the Minister choose to review secondary education policies and practices by establishing SERP, rather than by using some other mechanism?

This question was answered by drawing on the data found in the interviews (Appendix T).

The framework of SERP was designed at the highest levels of the Ministry of Education. The structure and function of each committee were determined mainly by discussions between Podrebarac and Penny (Podrebarac interview). The Chairman of SERP, Duncan Green, was not involved in these discussions. When he began the project, he was given the design and was told he had to work within it (Green interview). Podrebarac's opinion, in retrospect, was that including the chairman of the project during the planning phase would have been helpful (Podrebarac interview).

The Minister considered and rejected the idea of a full royal commission of inquiry because such inquiries took too long, and often produced recommendations which could not be implemented immediately or were totally impractical (Stephenson, Podrebarac interviews). She wanted something more controllable in terms of the time frame, and something more informal than a royal commission to encourage as much input from the general public as possible (Stephenson interview).

The SERP model had several features which commended itself to the Minister's attention (Stephenson, Podrebarac, Fleck interviews). First, the project was to have specific objectives and, therefore, would recommend changes in areas of interest to the ministry. Such objectives would place some practical parameters on the activities of the project, although the objectives were interpreted very broadly by the SERP committees.

Second, a chairman was to be hired from outside the ministry who would have full authority to proceed with the inquiry without interference from ministry officials. This chairman was to be selected from among educators in the field and was to have broadly-based experiences in all aspects of education. It was assumed that such a chairman would give the project credibility with those outside the ministry and keep the project independent of the ministry (Podrebarac interview).

Third, the entire project, while housed in the ministry for convenience, was not to be part of the ministry's hierarchy and line functions. The members of the secretariat, while ministry education officers, worked for the project full-time, and had no other ministry duties. This placed them at some distance from other ministry personnel in their day-to-day activities (Stephenson, Bell interviews).

Fourth, the presence of four committees, each of which reviewed the same issues, ensured that every interest group would have an opportunity to comment on, and provide direction for each issue. The presence of non-educators on these committees would ensure that the educators, particularly the ministry officials, would need to be very clear about any proposed ideas and their underlying assumptions (Stephenson interview). Proposed integrated meetings among various committees would ensure that non-educators would be well informed by educators about the nature of the various issues (Appendix H).

Fifth, the Design Committee, the last committee to review the issues, would be composed entirely of educators who could be relied on to develop practical recommendations which could be implemented within a reasonable amount of time (Stephenson interview). This committee would be responsible for preparing a draft report which would be published and distributed for public validation thereby giving individuals and interest groups another "kick at it" (Fleck interview).

Finally, the SERP model allowed for the widest possible participation of a diverse array of interest groups within a reasonable time frame while still remaining manageable as a process.

The Minister was very prominent in the development of SERP: she encouraged the team which developed the proposal, her office selected the members for the Steering Committee and gave approval for all other committee members, she sold the project proposal to Cabinet, and she gave Green direct access to herself and to the deputy minister. She received some criticism from educators about the number of non-educators who were involved; and from non-educators about those groups that were not represented, particularly student drop-outs. The political affiliation of SERP committee members was unknown, and was considered to be irrelevant since the review was an educational, rather than a political activity. Interested members of the legislature were invited to the symposium, and to submit their own responses to the Discussion Paper (Stephenson, Podrebarac interviews).

The independence of the project was attested to by all persons interviewed. No interference was seen as having been brought to bear by ministry officials; members of the SERP committees and secretariat had access to ministry information when, and if, they required it; the chairman had full access to the Minister, the deputy minister, and assistant deputy ministers at all times without having to go through the regular communication channels; and the executive secretary of the project and officials of the Curriculum Development Division, where the project was housed, had specific instructions to keep the chairman and everyone associated with the project free from bureaucratic red tape (Podrebarac, Fleck, Bell interviews).

At the same time, ministry officials were kept informed about the project's activities through full access to the minutes of all meetings, and through personal contact with the chairman (Appendix H).

3.2 ANALYSIS OF SERP ACTIVITIES

3.2.1 Question 5: Structures and Functions of SERP

- How and why were the structures and functions of SERP established?

This question was answered by drawing on data provided in the Cabinet Submission (Appendix F), the minutes of the SERP committees (Appendices H, J, K, L), and the interviews (Appendix T).

The Cabinet Submission (Appendix H) which outlined the Secondary Education Review project proposed structures and functions which differ in interesting ways from the structure and functions which evolved as the project progressed. While the differences were small, the long-term effects were important to the outcome of the project.

SERP decision-making structures consisted of:

- The Chairman of the project,
- A Secretariat,
- A Steering Committee,
- An Evaluation Committee,
- A Reaction Committee, and
- A Design Committee.

The secretariat consisted of four (originally three) ministry officials who, along with the project chairman (Green), attended virtually all meetings of all committees (Green, Bell interviews). The terms of reference outlined in the Cabinet Submission (Appendix H) state that the secretariat was to facilitate and direct the operation of the project until completion. Its responsibilities ultimately included the preparation of agendas and minutes, analysis of submissions, the briefing of committee members, the preparation of reports resulting from committee deliberations, and visits to schools, boards and special interest groups. The addition of a fourth member of the secretariat was brought about when representatives of the Franco-Ontarian community requested that a French-speaking ministry official be included in its membership.

Although all members of the secretariat shared the various responsibilities, a clear division of labour emerged. Green was responsible for all liaison work among SERP committees, with committee members and ministry officials, and with education and non-education groups in the community. When not attending meetings, he was most often involved in visits to schools and with special interest groups. He saw his responsibilities as facilitating the process of inquiry, and acting as a conduit for information, ideas and opinions, gathered during his visiting activities, to the various committees (Green interview).

Fleck handled all the administrative details of the project and acted as a buffer between the ministry's hierarchy and organizational activities and the ongoing activities of the project. He saw his responsibilities as managing the administrative end of things and keeping the committees from becoming entangled in ministry red tape (Fleck interview).

Liebovitz, Bell, and Giroux began the project without specific responsibilities. However, as time progressed, each assumed responsibility for selected tasks. Liebovitz became responsible for managing the vast amount of input to the project from individuals and interest groups, and for summarizing the content of briefs, letters and petitions (Liebovitz interview). Bell became responsible for writing initial drafts of various sections of committee reports. These drafts were seen as catalysts for further discussion and most were radically revised (Bell interview). Giroux became responsible for writing activities (in English), and for summarizing all French submissions (Giroux interview).

The Steering Committee, in addition to the chairman and members of the secretariat, consisted of fourteen members drawn from different education and non-education groups. There were rarely more than three absentees at any of the twenty-two meetings. The membership of this and other committees is discussed in the next section.

The terms of reference outlined in the Cabinet Submission (Appendix F) state that the Steering Committee was to gather data to be drawn from existing studies, plus a Gallup Poll to be conducted across Ontario regarding the public's opinion about secondary education issues. These data were to be used to draft the Assessment Report (AR). The AR was to be introduced to symposium participants for their responses (perceived as a quasi validation process). New data, and reactions to the AR were to be obtained from over 200 invited presenters and participants.

The Steering Committee did assume responsibility for identifying the major issues and problems confronting secondary education. The committee used existing studies and its own opinions and expertise to generate both the original set of issues and the data to support these issues. The Gallup Poll was cancelled at the request of the committee on the assumption that enough facts about public opinion were already known. The Assessment Report proved to be extremely difficult to prepare and was not ready in time for distribution to symposium participants. The major issues which had been identified by the Steering Committee were used to structure the symposium, and additional data were gathered from the presenters and from small group discussions. These data expanded, but did not radically alter, the major issues already identified.

The Assessment Report was written after the symposium. It included statements about the issues to be resolved, described current conditions relevant to the issues and the contexts in which the issues then existed, and proposed possible policy directions which could be taken in response to each issue. These directions were not necessarily those with which any or all of the committee members agreed; they were just "Possible Directions". Some were in direct conflict with each other; some were "blue-sky" ideas which were included for the purpose of discussion (Fleck interview).

The Assessment Report was forwarded to the Evaluation Committee which consisted of fourteen members, including both educators and non-educators. The terms of reference outlined in the Cabinet Submission (Appendix F) for the Evaluation Committee state that it was to review the AR, the results of the symposium, and any additional data, and was to expand the AR, in consultation with the Steering Committee, to produce the Evaluation Report (ER). The Evaluation Committee was also to assist the Steering Committee with the design and implementation of the symposium.

The Evaluation Committee did respond to the AR. In fact, it was asked to respond to draft portions of the AR while the Steering Committee was still writing other portions. The two committees met together on one occasion, but each worked independently of the other. The Evaluation Committee did not expand the AR; it examined each "Possible Direction" and indicated its endorsement, non-endorsement or some form of modification. It also added several "Possible Directions" of its own. The ER consisted of detailed explanations for the committee's response to each possible direction.

The ER and AR were passed on to the Reaction Committee. The terms of reference outlined in the Cabinet Submission state that the Reaction Committee, which consisted of eighteen non-educators, was to review the ER, react to the issues and directions proposed, examine "contemporary and futures data", and prepare an additional section on the Goals of Secondary Education. Then, in consultation with the Steering Committee, it was to prepare a Reaction Report (RR).

The Reaction Committee did respond to the ER and AR. The RR indicated whether the Reaction Committee agreed with the Evaluation Committee or not, and provided detailed explanations for these responses. The RR also included some new "Possible Directions". The Reaction Committee did not meet with any other committee to complete these tasks, did not review any "futures data", and did not write a separate section of the Goals of Education.

The three reports were then to be passed on to the Design Committee. In fact, the ER and RR went back to the Steering Committee for additional comments and reorganization before being passed on to the Design Committee. The Design Committee consisted of fourteen professional educators. The terms of reference outlined in the Cabinet Submission state that the Design Committee was to review the previous reports, and prepare a series of recommendations, based on the decisions made by the other three committees, to be published as a White Paper.

The Design Committee received a "Compilation Report" from the Steering Committee. In co-operation with the secretariat, the chairman, and two professional editors (whose task was to prepare edited reports in both English and French), the committee began its review of the issues. Over 250 "Possible Directions" were to be considered and reduced to a viable set of recommendations. At this point the Design Committee encountered a conflict and a dilemma. As educators they had a vested interest in the outcomes of the project. They wanted to either discuss the issues again in full (a task already completed by three different committees) and make their own decisions, change the decisions forwarded from the Steering Committee with which they disagreed, or send some of the decisions back for reconsideration. The chairman informed them that their task was to accept the decisions of the other three committees, and design the ways and means to implement these decisions (see Appendix L; Connelly interview).

Eventually, members of the secretariat wrote the report of the Design Committee, the Discussion Paper (DP), based on their knowledge of the views of the other three committees and the discussions of the Design Committee. The DP contained 101 recommendations, and identified some half dozen "Issues Requiring Further Examination". The report was published as a special edition of Education Ontario, a tabloid newspaper produced by the ministry. It was widely-distributed across the province to education and non-education groups, with an invitation to respond. These groups, primarily the education groups, were given two months to respond. A mail strike intervened, and the response time was extended to four months. Over 2,400 submissions in the form of individual letters or briefs, and over 2,000 signed form letters or petitions were received (Appendix H).

According to the Cabinet Submission (Appendix F), the Steering and Design Committees were to work co-operatively to respond to the submissions, and prepare a Final Report (FR). However, the secretariat summarized all submissions received. The Steering Committee reviewed these summaries and, with the assistance of the two editors, prepared the FR which was submitted to the Minister of Education on November 1, 1982 (only ten months behind schedule).

The Cabinet Submission proposed a more integrated set of activities within and among the four committees than actually happened (Figures G-2 and G-3, Appendix G). The differences between what was planned and what happened include:

- Responsibility for summarizing submissions to the project and preparation of the Final Report were originally assigned to the Design Committee, working in co-operation with the Steering Committee. In fact, the secretariat assumed responsibility for summarizing all submissions and, with the Steering Committee assumed full responsibility for the preparation of the FR.

- The original design called on the four committees to work in an integrative and co-operative manner. In fact, the committees worked sequentially with little integration. All integration was provided by the chairman and secretariat.

- The project's data base was to draw on existing studies and data from the symposium. Lack of information about Grade 13 resulted in the ministry commissioning a comparison study on the achievement levels of Grade 13 Ontario graduates and Grade 12 graduates from other provinces in first year university. This study was not received until the second to last full meeting of the Steering Committee prior to the publication of the FR.

- The originally planned Gallup Poll was never conducted (Appendix H).

- The Steering Committee requested that the secretariat obtain original data on a series of questions from appropriate agencies. These data were not available to the Steering Committee until after the publication of the DP (Appendix H).

- The AR was not available for the symposium and, therefore, its premises were not fully validated except by other SERP committees.

- The Goals of Education were discussed and evaluated by all committees but the outcomes of these discussions were not included in either the DP or the FR, although the order in which the goals appeared in the FR varied from the order used by the ministry in all previous and subsequent documents. A general statement about the Goals of Education was written indicating the extent to which secondary schools were responsible, in company with other community agencies, for each goal. A much simplified statement of the goals was prepared by Michael Cobden, a member of the Reaction Committee, but was not included in any report.

- The term "futures data" was never clarified and such data were never really considered in depth.

- The Steering Committee was to meet on 20 days, the Evaluation Committee on 10 days, the Reaction Committee on 9 days, and the Design Committee on 9 days (i.e., 48 days in total). The Steering Committee actually met on 37 days, the Evaluation Committee on 14 days, the Reaction Committee on 9 days, and the Design Committee on 13 days (i.e., 73 days in total, not including orientation meetings on June 16, 1980 and April 27, 1981).

- The Assessment Phase was to last 5 months, the Evaluation Phase 3 months, the Reaction Phase 1 month, the Design Phase 1 month, and the Validation Phase 2 months (i.e., 12 months in total). The Assessment Phase actually lasted 7 months, the Evaluation Phase 3 months, the Reaction Phase 1 month, the Design Phase 2 months, and the Validation Phase 6 months (i.e, 19 months in total).

The Cabinet Submission (Appendix F) seriously under-estimated the start-up time required for the project, a fact which frustrated ministry officials (Stephenson interview), and changed the nature of the Assessment Report and the tasks of the symposium. The Validation Phase was extended when a federal mail strike intervened, an unexpected event not foreseen in the original planning.

3.2.2 Question 6: SERP Objectives

- How might the objectives established by the ministry have affected the work of the SERP committees?

This question was answered by drawing on data described in the Cabinet Submission (Appendix F), documents related to committee membership (Appendix G), the minutes of the Steering Committee (Appendix H), Update '84 (Appendix S), and the interviews (Appendix T).

The objectives described in the Cabinet Submission (Appendix F) were perceived as non-restrictive by both the secretariat and the Steering Committee (Appendix H). The Minister's description of the objectives was that "everything was up for grabs" (Stephenson interview). However, the opinion of several interviewees was that everything was not "up for grabs" (Wilson, Cobden interviews). Certainly everything brought before the committees was discussed, but some issues were never raised largely because the secretariat never raised them (Bell interview), and some were viewed as being beyond the mandate of the project (e.g., the organization of the ministry, the barriers created by the manner in which the federations were organized - see Bell, Wilson interviews).

A common perception of the objectives was that they focused only on the program, organization, and delivery of services for secondary education - at least that was what the title of the project implied (Bell interview). When the project addressed issues related to the Intermediate Division, some teachers' federations assumed that the committees were exceeding their mandate. However, the wording of the objectives indicates that the project was asked to examine the curriculum in both the Intermediate and Senior Divisions (i.e., from Grades 7 through 13), and the organization and delivery of educational services for secondary education (i.e., for Grades 9 through 13).

Problems arose when the Steering Committee tried to limit discussions about school organization and program delivery to Grades 9-13, and about curriculum and program content to Grades 7-13. The committee finally decided to look at school organization and program delivery from Grades 7 through 13. That is, the fifth objective[5] was interpreted as applying to both program delivery and program content (Wilson interview).

The ninth objective, which called for the adaptation of the secondary program to meet the needs of a multicultural society, was dropped when the Minister presented the outline of the project in the legislature. This change came about as a request from the Steering Committee which viewed this objective as too broad to be included with the more specific mandates of the other eight objectives (Appendix H). The effect of this change was to limit discussions about French-language education and the organization of French-language Instructional Units (unilingual or bilingual). No other objective specified an examination of these issues except as they related to the overall program and organization of secondary education.

Some constraints appear to have been put on the Steering Committee by the proposed outline for the Assesssment Report. The Cabinet Submission stated that the Assessment Report was "to identify existing issues and problems related to secondary education; assess them in their present context; and to comment on possible future directions". The first four meetings of the Steering Committee were largely devoted to working within this framework and from that point on, the issues-assessment-directions framework both guided, and to some extent limited, further activities (see Murtagh letter, Appendix H, Pascal interview). Issues which might have arisen in the future but were not, at that time, "existing issues and problems", were, to some extent, ignored.

---

[5] The objectives for the project are listed by number in Appendix F.

Finally, the eight objectives which finally guided the project appeared to address the organization and delivery of education services at different levels within the system - that is, at local and provincial levels. Objective 1, "To focus on the needs and goals of secondary students commensurate with their levels of ability" and objective 7, "To devise means to provide appropriate educational programs that include courses at various levels of difficulty to meet the needs of students with different interests and aptitudes" were clearly directed to the local level of the system. Only the individual board, school, and teacher could respond to the needs of individual students. Many of the recommendations which flowed from these objectives were responded to by the ministry by being referred to "schools and boards accompanied by supportive statements from the Ministry of Education" (Appendix S). One of the major concerns expressed by many of those interviewed for this project was that SERP, and later OSIS, failed to develop programs and guidelines for developing programs for students at different levels of ability.

Objective 2, "To set criteria for a program that prepares students for the futures envisaged by society", Objective 3, "To assess the goals of education and to realign the secondary school program to ensure that the goals and program are compatible and viable", Objective 5, "To consider the structure of the Intermediate and Senior Divisions with respect to the characteristics of adolescents and the problem of mobility of students within and to or from the province", and Objective 6, "To assess such features as the credit system, required subjects policy, diploma requirements" were clearly directed to the provincial level. Most of the recommendations which flowed from these objectives eventually found their way into the policies described in OSIS (Appendix S).

Objective 4, "To redesign the program to better prepare students for the world of work", and Objective 8, "To respond to concerns regarding standards and discipline in secondary schools", were addressed to both local and provincial levels but in quite different ways. While the ministry might make supportive statements about designing programs to prepare students for the world of work, the local school had to assume the responsibility for finding work stations and co-operative education places in the local community. In Objective 8, the problem of standards was viewed, at least by the post-secondary community, as a provincial problem which had to be resolved by the ministry. However, the question of discipline had to be resolved by the local school working in co-operation with parents, students, and teachers in the development and enforcement of a local code of student behaviour.

3.2.3 Question 7: SERP Membership

- How were the members of SERP chosen, on what basis, and what tasks were they expected to carry out?

This question was answered by drawing on data in the Cabinet Submission (Appendix F), documents related to SERP committee membership (Appendix G), the minutes of SERP committee meetings (Appendices H, J, K, L), miscellaneous SERP documents (Appendix M), and (the interviews (Appendix T).

The Cabinet Submission on SERP (Appendix F) indicated that membership on the SERP committees would be balanced between the general public and the educational community. Educators would be drawn equally from ministry and non-ministry personnel. The entire membership of the four committees would attempt to represent a broad spectrum of the public and specifically was to include: anglophones and francophones, multicultural groups, males and females, students and parents, and representatives of small and large schools, rural and urban communities, employers, and post-secondary educational institutions.

In March 1980, the members of the HS1 Advisory Committee expressed concern that the secondary headmasters' group had not been given formal representation on the Steering Committee despite their past involvement with HS1. The absence of a classroom teacher from the Steering Committee was also noted. At a later date, a past president of OSSHC (Sampson) and a classroom teacher (Hill) were included on the Evaluation Committee (Appendix G). The ministry received numerous complaints about the lack of representation of various groups on the Steering Committee. A major difficulty appears to be that, while the ministry took all 62 members of the four committees into account when examining the issue of representativeness, the public was only concerned about the Steering Committee since it was the only one for which the membership was announced in the legislature.

Baker (1985) reported that the members of the SERP committees were selected by the Minister and that, contrary to the impression given in her speeches, these persons were selected for their individual qualities and not as representatives of various groups. The data gathered for this study indicated that the various constituencies to be represented on the SERP committees were identified first and representatives of these constituencies identified later. However, those who eventually became members of the four committees were explicitly asked not to present or represent the viewpoint of their constituency, but to come with an open mind and present their own viewpoints. This cautionary note seems to have been directed more explicitly to the educators than to the non-educators (Wilson, Bolton, Curtis interviews). The fact that they were to represent only their own viewpoints caused some conflict for some committee members, particularly those who were active in groups with a special interest in the outcomes of the SERP deliberations (Wilson, Sampson interviews).

A series of notes on potential committee members indicates that the educators on, for example, the Evaluation Committee were to include representatives from both business, special, and academic education. Three names were proposed for each category, and marginal notes indicate how each potential member was seen as being representative of additional interest groups. When a prospective member of one constituency declined to participate, he or she was replaced by someone from the same group. All potential members had to be approved by the Minister's office before invitations could be sent. The Minister, deputy minister and Podrebarac selected the members for the Steering Committee. The deputy minister selected the ministry officials to serve on the secretariat. The Steering Committee and secretariat selected the members of the other three committees on the advice of the Minister's office.

It seems reasonable to assume, therefore, that based on the selection process, each committee member was implicitly expected to represent the views of his or her constituency, but not in an open or confrontational manner. In fact, Giroux commented that, "You can't forget your own background nor divorce yourself from your own constituencies" (Giroux interview). Members were also cautioned against discussing in detail the issues being considered by SERP. Those who were interviewed reported that they kept their constituencies informed about the general progress of the project but did not discuss specific issues in detail, and that they offered constituency-specific public comments on the project's recommendations only after the release of the Final Report (Appendix H; Wilson, Bolton, Pascal interviews).

The size of each committee was enlarged as the membership was determined, a necessary move if all relevant interest groups were to be represented. The most glaring error made in determining the initial membership of the secretariat was that no Franco-Ontarian was included. It was assumed that francophone committee members, in particular Blake and Leger on the Steering Committee, would be sufficient to represent French interests (Giroux interview). However, by the end of June 1980, under strong prompting from the Franco-Ontarian community, the project requested that a French-speaking ministry officer be added to the secretariat, and a bilingual secretary be hired. Jacques Giroux joined the secretariat in July, and a bilingual secretary was seconded to the project from the Ministry of Municipal Affairs.

Although his appointment had come as the result of a request from the Franco-Ontarian community, Giroux made a point of informing the French-speaking groups that he was not indebted to them for his appointment, that he was not their representative, and that they would have to submit their concerns directly to the project, in the same manner as all other special interest groups (Giroux interview).

Late additions were made to several committees to ensure adequate distribution of females, francophones, Roman Catholics, and students (Appendix H). One Native student was originally listed as a member of the Reaction Committee but when she failed to attend any sessions, her name was withdrawn before the final meeting.

The total membership on all committees was 67 including the five members of the secretariat (who were considered members of the Steering Committee, but attended all committee meetings if possible); 14 members on the Steering Committee; 14 on the Evaluation Committee; 20 on the Reaction Committee; and 14 on the Design Committee (see Figure G-3, Appendix G). Figure 3-1 represents the distribution of committee members based on the population factors identified as important in the Minister's submission to the Cabinet.

Males		46 (69%)	Females	21 (31%)
Anglophones		57 (85%)	Francophones	10 (15%)
Educators:	Ministry	12 (18%)	Non-educators	30 (45%)
	Non-ministry	25 (37%)		

Figure 3-1: Distribution of SERP Committee Membership by Sex, Language, and Role as Educator.

Of the 21 females included in the total SERP membership, 55 per cent sat on the Reaction Committee, 29 per cent on the Steering Committee, 21 per cent on both the Evaluation and Design Committees, and none on the secretariat. Twenty-one of the 30 non-educators (70 per cent), and seven of the 37 educators (19 per cent) were women.

Multicultural interests were represented by two persons (Bata and Lievat). The representation of rural and urban members, and of those from small school systems was difficult to determine. Three persons (Misner, Fontana, and Korkola) were identified as representing small, rural school systems. It is also likely that two others (Varty and May) also represented small, rural communities.

Except for the five members identified as students, it seems likely that a large proportion of the remaining 62 persons could have been parents. However, only two were identified as representing that segment of society.

Business, industry, and labour were represented by ten members, four on the Steering Committee, and three on each of the Evaluation and Reaction Committees.

The term "educator" appears to have been defined as meaning a person whose major (paid) work activities were within a formal educational institution or professional group representing some aspect of the educational system. Several committee members (at least seven) in fact could have been interpreted as educators inasmuch as they represented such groups as:

- Those providing educational activities in non-formal settings (e.g., counselling, research);

- Those providing educational activities in agencies whose primary function was not education (e.g., education directors of labour organizations); and

- Those indirectly involved in the educational system (e.g., trustees, former teachers).

The SERP committees were described by Podrebarac as "working committees", although several committee members (Wilson, Connelly interviews) disagreed with this definition because committee members were not asked to do any "homework" between meetings. For the most part, the work of the committee members included:

- Reviewing all issues brought before it (Green interview).
- Reading masses of original input and summarized submissions (Green interview).
- Being fair and reasonable in discussions (Green interview).
- Speaking up about unique opinions, particularly when these differed from those of other committee members (Stephenson interview).
- Acting as 'lightning rods' to collect information from their constituencies and communities (Stephenson interview).
- Being collectively responsible for the contents of the report published by their committee (Stephenson interview).
- Voicing disagreement about positions taken in the committee's report within that committee before the report was published (Curtis interview).

Specific individuals carried out selected tasks.

- Watts and Pascal wrote proposed frameworks for the *Assessment Report*.
- Pascal and Bata collected input for the Steering Committee from their respective constituencies.
- Bolton wrote to members of the business community soliciting their responses to the *Discussion Paper*.
- Murtagh, Bolton, and Green travelled to Germany, and Bell and Matsushita to the United Kingdom to examine educational services and report back to the project.
- Cobden wrote a simplified version of the Goals of Education.
- Pascal carried out some of the visiting activities when all members of the secretariat were busy.

However, in terms of the reports, writing tasks were assigned to members of the secretariat who worked from notes taken during meetings. Written materials were revised at later meetings and, in this way, each committee assumed some responsibility for the various reports.

All members of the four SERP committees were invited to attend the symposium where many assisted by serving as chairpersons of presentation sessions or as discussion leaders in small groups.

3.2.4 Question 8: Generation of Original Data Base

- What processes led to the generation of the original set of data collected by SERP?

This question was answered by drawing on data found in the minutes of SERP meetings (Appendices H, J, K, L), the summary of the symposium (Appendix I), miscellaneous SERP documents (Appendix M), the summary of school visits (Appendix N), and the interviews (Appendix T).

The Cabinet Submission (Appendix F) and the minutes of various meetings (Appendix H) indicate that the "original data base" was derived from already existing studies and reports. A list of the studies and reports used to provide original data is shown as "Input to the Project" in the summary of Steering Committee meetings (Appendix H).

The original intent to conduct a Gallup Poll on public opinion about secondary education was viewed as unnecessary and dropped from the project's activities at the first Steering Committee meeting. Sufficient survey data was viewed as being available from the OISE surveys and the reports available from the York and CEA surveys (Appendix H).

Additional materials were obtained by a number of means:

- Pascal contacted OISE professors and researchers to determine what they had available (Appendix H).
- Materials were obtained from England and the United States, as well as from other provinces then conducting reviews of education (notably Alberta and Quebec) (Appendices H, I).
- Concerns were gathered directly by members of the secretariat from those involved in education and from community members through a series of over 100 visits to schools and communities throughout Ontario (Appendix N).
- Green, Bolton, and Murtagh toured Germany to gather information about that country's system of technical training and apprenticeship programs (Appendix H).

- Bell and Matsushita toured the United Kingdom to gather information about that country's system of inspecting schools and evaluating students (Appendix H).

- Committee members brought in relevant documents of particular interest to them (e.g., Bata brought in a report on Junior Achievement) (Appendix H).

- Ideas were brought forward at the symposium by persons both from Ontario and from outside the province and Canada (Appendix I).

- The minutes of the HS1 Advisory Committee for 1979-80 were reviewed (Appendix E).

- The complete submissions received from major educational organizations were included in the materials provided to Steering Committee members for reading (Appendix H).

The only original research, conducted on behalf of the project by Alan King (under ministry contract), was the study on university achievement by Grade 13 Ontario students in comparison with Grade 12 students from outside Ontario. OSSTF had originally intended to fund this study but suggested that King do it under ministry contract because more funds could be made available. The study was not made available to the Steering Committee until September 1981 (Appendix H).

The main generation of ideas came from the Steering Committee itself, and from responses to its ideas by the other three committees. During their second meeting, Steering Committee members brainstormed ideas which were then categorized and organized first by the secretariat, and later recategorized and reorganized in subsequent Steering Committee meetings (Appendix H).

The Steering Committee requested specific data on a number of issues which were provided by officials in the Ministry of Education, as well as by other ministries (Appendix H). These data included:

- Proportions of semestered and non-semestered schools.

- The distribution of small secondary schools throughout the province.

- University data on admission requirements.

- CAAT data on the success of Grade 12 graduates as compared to other students.

- The average number of student credits earned toward the SSGD and SSHGD.

- The impact of short credits on student timetabling.

- Minimum teaching time spent on Grade 7 and 8 subjects.

- Number of students using external music credits to gain diplomas.

- Extent of prerequisite requirements for various courses.

- Current use of "shared time" agreements between boards.

- Enrolments in co-operative education, linkage programs, and work experience programs.

In total, some thirty-one items of information were made available to the Steering Committee in June 1981, some two months after the Discussion Paper was published.

An examination of the Goals of Education in Ontario and their relevance for secondary education was originally intended as a task for the Reaction Committee. At the symposium, Shapiro asked that the project direct its attention to considering how much responsibility should be assigned to the secondary schools for each goal. Each committee was asked to rank order the goals. The order reported in both the Discussion Paper and the Final Report presented the goals as they were collectively ranked by the various committees.

No record could be found of the ranking assigned to the goals by the Design Committee. To reach the final ranking (shown in Figure 3-2), the results from the Design Committee would have had to be reasonably close to the results provided by the Steering Committee (Appendix K). The original statement of goals as outlined in Issues and Directions (1980) indicates that the order in which the ministry listed the goals did not reflect any hierarchical order. The ministry continues to use its order in all official documents which suggests that the activities of the SERP committees had little effect in establishing any priorities for goals in secondary education.

3.2.5 Question 9: Decision-Making Processes

- What decision-making processes were followed in the SERP committees?

This question was answered using data drawn from the SERP committee meetings (Appendices H, J, K, L), miscellaneous SERP documents (Appendix M), the summary of school visits (Appendix N), and the interviews (Appendix T).

Five processes must be considered: how discussions were conducted and decisions reached, how ideas were raised and written statements prepared, how input to the project was handled, how communications were carried on between the project and outside agencies, and how the draft report of the project was validated. These processes, while discussed within the Steering Committee, appear to have been carefully structured by the chairman and the secretariat (Appendix H; various interviews).

Order of Goals in Issues and Directions		Rank Order by Committee SC	EC	RC	Rank Order in Final Report
1.	Awareness of learning	1	2	2	2
2.	Resourcefulness	3	3	3	3
3.	Basic knowledge and skills	1	1	1	1
4.	Physical fitness	9	11	6	11
5.	Artistic expression	11	4	11	10
6.	Self-worth	5	10	6	6
7.	Role of family	13	12	13	13
8.	Skills for self-reliance	5	6	9	5
9.	Personal responsibility to society	9	6	9	9
10.	Respect for cultural groups	7	6	5	7
11.	Skills and attitudes for work world	4	4	3	4
12.	Respect for environment	7	6	6	8
13.	Moral development	12	12	12	12

Figure 3-2: Goals of Education for Ontario: Rank-ordered by Importance to Secondary Education

Discussions and Decisions

The major focus of all committees was to prepare a draft report addressing the issues, assessing each in its current context, and proposing possible directions for policy. The Steering Committee minutes (Meeting 2, Appendix H) state that: "In the light of any new input, papers, briefs and opinions, the Steering Committee will make an assessment (and reach a decision on each issue) by consensus."

When Green first started working with the committees he was concerned about how the four different committees were to conduct their work, and felt that the range of different opinions might be impossible to manage. However, the more he worked with the process, the better he liked it, and the more he felt it was important that everyone's opinion be heard (Podrebarac, Green interviews). His description of the decision-making process was that the committees reached consensus "by influence or exhaustion" (Green interview). Giroux described the process as re-inventing the wheel in each committee; however, he viewed this as a good thing since it called on the secretariat to be more specific, and to clarify their underlying assumptions about various issues (Giroux interview).

Bell described the process in the following terms (Bell interview):

> One of the things that fascinated me was how Duncan Green was going to bring all the ideas together ... My impression was that we did not reach decisions on a lot of issues for a long time. I kept thinking we were going to go in this direction ... and then we'd come back and the direction I had predicted was not the one we were taking. The end result would be something I would never have predicted even halfway through the project ... On almost every issue, we slowly reached consensus. Issues would get batted around ... and Duncan would say, 'Now let me summarize where I think we are. Some people have said this and some have said that and I think we're going in this direction, but I'm not sure. Is that a correct summary of the positions we have been expressing?' Then we would discuss his summary (and later) he would resummarize and we'd all look at that ... Eventually his summary would be something everyone could live with.

There was no evidence of serious internal disputes, voting or the existence of significant minority positions although the minutes may well have not recorded conflicts that were eventually resolved to the satisfaction of most committee members or straw votes taken to determine the relative position of committee members on selected issues. Unresolved conflicts were often left until a later meeting when the issue was debated again. On issues which could not be resolved through consensus, the final report proposed further study (Bell interview). Some issues were decided one way at one meeting, then rediscussed at the request of committee members with special concerns at a subsequent meeting, and the decision changed (Wilson interview). The interviews suggested that committee members who felt their views were not being heard or accepted often stopped attending meetings or simply remained silent (Pascal, Connelly interviews). The fact that each committee met, on the average, once a month for two or three days precluded the coalescence of any groups which might have expressed minority views (Wilson interview).

Each committee worked independently of each other with the connections being provided by the secretariat. Within each committee, members were frequently divided into small groups, with each group assigned a different topic for in-depth discussion. A member of the secretariat worked with each small group, and the points raised were written into the various working drafts of the committee's report (Appendices H, J, K, L).

The chairman operated from a highly rational model of decision making which is clearly illustrated, for example, in his memoranda to ministry officials and his material to committee members. It was typical for him, in presenting an issue or course of action, to describe a number of alternatives, and to outlined explicitly the strengths and weaknesses of each. This strategy appeared to be more than a sophisticated form of argument for a preferred alternative on his part: in some instances, he did not express a strong preference (for example, see memo January 27, 1981, Appendix M).

The rational character of the committees' decision making is also evident in the provision of reasons for modifying or rejecting directions or recommendations in reports leading to the Final Report. On one issue in particular, Grade 13, the Steering Committee persistently delayed making a decision until a relevant research study (Appendix M) had been completed. Reliance on such data, as well as frequent attempts to keep the Goals of Education prominent among the criteria for making decisions, support the view of decision making as rational and systematic.

Ideas and Written Statements

A series of alternative frameworks were put forward to give form to the draft report which was to be the main output of the project. The basis for the framework developed by the Steering Committee was initially provided by the objective that the Final Report should address issues; assess each in its current context; and propose possible directions for policy (Appendix H). At the same time, the committee brainstormed the relevant issues and problems, then organized and reorganized these into clusters. Once the framework for the report had been established, the brainstormed issues and problems, and the existing data were placed into this frame. New data were requested as gaps appeared or new issues were identified. Requests for relevant data were forwarded by the secretariat to appropriate ministry branches and the responses were most often generated from existing data bases (Appendix H). Concerns about Grade 13 prompted SERP to request that the ministry commission a special study on this topic (Appendix M). Most committee meetings were largely devoted to considering quite specific issues and directions (later recommendations) appearing in one or several of the reports.

The Assessment Report was the first written using the established framework. The Evaluation and Reaction Reports addressed the issues in the same order and format as that provided in the Assessment Report. The order in which issues were presented was modified for the Discussion Paper and Final Report, but the issues remained the same.

The majority of issues raised by the project came from the secretariat and the Steering Committee. The secretariat had the strongest influence because its members were working on the problems full-time rather than just once a month, and because of what they elected to raise or not raise in committees. If the secretariat did not raise an issue, it was not likely to be raised by anyone else (Bell interview).

As issues were discussed, the secretariat was asked to put the issues, assessment, and possible directions into writing. Between meetings, secretariat members would draft the material and it would be thoroughly discussed and dissected at the next meeting (Wilson interview).

The Assessment Report contained all the issues, all the "what-ifs" and "blue-sky" ideas, some of which were totally impractical. The Steering Committee decided that everything should be put "on the table", and refined by the other three committees (Fleck interview).

In March 1981, two professional editors joined the work group. They worked first with the Design Committee in preparing the Discussion Paper, and later with the Steering Committee in preparing the Final Report. The English editor, Frank Quinlan, was helpful in getting the ideas onto paper with a minimum amount of jargon (Wilson interview). The French editor, Raynauld Desmeules, was helpful because he had to work from the English document and when he could not understand the ideas he asked "impertinent questions" which sent everyone back to the discussion table for more clarification (Giroux interview).

Input to the Project

Initial input came to the project in the form of existing studies and reports, later as briefs and letters from special interest groups. Great care appears to have been taken to provide Steering Committee members with as much relevant information as possible. Initially information on reports and submissions were provided during meetings; later, at the request of the Steering Committee, information was provided prior to meetings (Appendix H). Members were expected to read everything before meetings. There is evidence in both the attendance record and comments that committee members took their task extremely seriously. Since the members themselves generated both the issues and the framework for the report, it seems likely that they developed a high level of commitment to the outcomes of the project (Giroux, Liebovitz interviews).

It is not clear how the background studies were used by committee members, however. Only infrequently are such studies explicitly referred to in the minutes as a basis for decision making. It appears, rather, that the studies served an "educational" purpose: they expanded the committee members' frames of reference, and were subsumed with a great deal of other relevant knowledge as a basis for deliberation and choice making.

Information gathered during school and organization visits, and during the two overseas trips was provided to the Steering Committee through verbal summaries (Appendix H). Written reports were also prepared and filed for the record (Appendix N).

As the project moved into the validation phase, the flow of information increased dramatically. At one point, the chairman commented that the responses, if stacked one on top of the other, would stand five feet tall (Appendix H). The data received in these submissions was to be used to review the DP recommendations. When the submissions were few in number, each committee member received at least a portion of the responses. As the number of responses grew, this became unmanageable. Members of the secretariat summarized each response on the basis of substantive comments, reaction to specific recommendations, and the source of the submission. ONTERIS was employed to computerize these summaries. The data provided to committee members consisted of (Appendix H):

- Tabular material showing the summary of each submission;

- Tabular material showing responses to each recommendation;

- The original briefs from major educational organizations such as OSSTF, OTF, ALSBO, OPSTA, and ACHSBO.

Increasingly members relied on the chairman and secretariat to summarize the responses relevant to each recommendation, and on ONTERIS to provide a computerized summary. This put greater and greater power into the hands of the chairman and secretariat whose interpretations of the significance of responses eventually became the major contact that Steering Committee members had with responses (except for the submissions from the federations and provincial educational associations) (Appendix H). This may be seen as support for a subtle version of the Elite Theory of policy development in the face of a problem for which alternative, practical solutions were not evident. Put differently, there is no evidence that the chairman and secretariat actively sought out such power; more accurately, it appears they could not avoid it, and were assigned it by the Steering Committee (see, for example, SC minutes for meetings 3 and 20, Appendix H).

Communications

The communication processes used within the project were important. The minutes were extremely complete in providing information about the meetings except in the case of the Design Committee. They served as one means of informing ministry officials about the project's activities without any direct interference (Appendix H).

The reports, which served as the means of communication between one committee and the others, were also very complete; each provided detailed explanations of why certain decisions were made (Appendices J and K; Green, Wilson interviews).

Individuals and groups wishing to make presentations and submissions to the project were asked to put their material in writing, and to send it to the project office, not to individual committee members. This decision was made early by the Steering Committee to reduce the pressure which might be brought to bear by lobby groups on individuals (Appendix H). Schools, community groups, and educational organizations that wished to interact with a member of the project through a visit or presentation were asked to contact the project office to make the necessary arrangements, again to reduce unnecessary demands on committee members (Appendix H).

The Discussion Paper was published as a special version of Education Ontario, a tabloid newspaper produced by the Ministry of Education. Because the tabloid format and use of newsprint were relatively inexpensive, the Discussion Paper received extremely wide circulation throughout the province. By not using a high-gloss, expensive-looking report, the Discussion Paper was intended to be perceived by the public as a report to which the ordinary citizen could respond (Podrebarac interview). The Final Report was published, for the general public, as a special edition of Education Ontario, but was produced on better quality paper (to increase its durability). A limited number of copies of the Final Report was also produced as a regular ministry report (Appendices H and M).

The objectives of these communication strategies were to maximize the possibility of interacting with the general public and special interest groups, and to maintain some distance between the project and the Ministry of Education (Podrebarac interview).

Validation of the Report

The process of validating the Discussion Paper provides an interesting example of a blending of different theories of policy development. Overtly, the validation process appeared to be designed for the expression of the opinions of special interest groups. The majority of such interests, however, had a stake in present practice and its maintenance, at least to a significant degree, resulting in recommendations for policies only incrementally different than existing practice. So many different special interests were expressed, however, that they could be seen as "cancelling each other out". Public response to one of the major issues, Grade 13, was divided almost evenly for and against its retention (Appendix H). Such situations demanded considerable discretion, and this discretion was left up to the "elite" to exercise.

3.2.6 Question 10: The Discussion Paper

- How did SERP committee members move from their original data base to the 101 recommendations published in the Discussion Paper in April 1981?

This question was answered by drawing on data provided in the minutes of committee meetings (Appendices H, J, K, L), miscellaneous SERP documents (Appendix M) and the interviews (Appendix T). To better understand how SERP members moved from their original data base to the Discussion Paper, a comparative analysis was done on the amount of change that occurred from report to report.

At the second meeting of the Steering Committee, the issues which were to be addressed in the Assessment Report were brainstormed, then categorized, and recategorized over two days. Over 90 items were organized into 11 categories. It was then determined that an organizing framework needed to be developed within which all the issues could be addressed. Three such formats were to be prepared (Appendix H).

At the third meeting of the Steering Committee, the three formats for the design of the Assessment Report were considered. The format proposed by the secretariat focused first on the historical background of the current secondary education system, then identified the issues under two headings - In School Issues, such as the role of the secondary school, the current program, decision making, new technologies, the role of teachers, and declining enrolments; and

Outside School Issues, such as the economy, the job market, postsecondary education, and societal expectations. The section on issues (i.e., What are the questions?) was to be followed by sections on available research (i.e., Are there any questions with obvious answers?), information gaps (i.e., Are there any questions with no obvious answers?), possible directions (i.e., What are the alternatives for the future?), and further research. This format suggests that the secretariat initially placed substantial emphasis on issues of concern to those within the secondary system, since the inside schools section was to be supported by extensive historical material (Appendix H).

The format proposed by Watts, who represented the university constituency, was designed to focus on the "issues" perspective. It outlined nine sections: Philosophy and goals of education in Ontario, Organization of the system, Organization and content of the program, Standards, Interface with elementary schools, Interface with postsecondary education, Interface with society, Interface with external agencies or groups, and Teachers and teaching. The emphasis in this format was more clearly on the concerns of those outside the secondary system, since five sections dealt with the concerns of outsiders (i.e., standards and the interfaces) (Appendix H).

The format proposed by Pascal was to focus on the "goals" or "outcomes" perspective. This format, which was not available in the document file, was described in the minutes as being more appropriate to an implementation document than the Assessment Report. This probably reflects Pascal's concern that the secondary education system should reflect lifelong learning issues and goals, rather than within school or outside school issues (Pascal interview).

At the fourth meeting of the Steering Committee, the secretariat presented a format which was an amalgamation of the others plus some suggestions made by committee members in previous meetings. The format proposed an extensive historical section and then organized 210 issues into five major categories:

- External Influences
- Interfaces
- Goals of Education
- Program Content
- Program Delivery

The issues sections were to be followed by sections assessing the issues (i.e., What data are or are not available), future possible directions, implementation suggestions, and future research (Appendix H).

By the fifth meeting of the Steering Committee, the historical section had been reduced, and the section on the goals of education had been removed as an "issues" section. The remaining four sections were retained, and were used as organizing concepts for the symposium. At this meeting, the secretariat decided that rather than separating the identification of the issues, their assessment, and the proposed future directions, each issue should be accompanied in the text of the report by all relevant descriptions, assessments, and proposed directions. There is also a cryptic note which suggests that the number of issues (210) should be reduced, if possible (Appendix H).

By the October 1980 meeting, after input from the symposium, the number of issues had increased to 217, and the general format of the report was the same. Before the report was complete, issues related to the education of Native students, the role of women in society, French as a minority language, multicultural concerns, school financing, the separate school system, and independent and private schools had been added as issues to bring the total to 236 (Appendix H).

Response to "Possible directions"	Evaluation Report in response to Assessment Report	Reaction Report in response to Evaluation Report
Number of directions received	236	243
- Endorsed without change	124	114
- Endorsed with modifications	60	76
- Not endorsed/Concerns expressed	52	53
- New directions proposed	7	8
- No comment/Unable to comment	--	3
Number of directions sent to next committee	243	251

Figure 3-3: Committees' Responses to the Assessment and Evaluation Reports.

As summarized in Figure 3-3, the Evaluation Committee (EC) responded to the 236 "Possible Directions" outlined by the Steering Committee in their Assessment Report. The committee endorsed over 50 per cent (124) of them without change; about 25 per cent (60) were modified in some fashion; and about 22 per cent (52) were not endorsed. The EC, in its Evaluation Report, added seven new "Possible Directions" of its own which meant that the Reaction Committee was asked to consider 243 directions. Those directions not endorsed by the EC were nevertheless retained for consideration by subsequent committees (Appendix J).

The Reaction Committee (RC) responded to the 236 directions originally outlined in the Asseessment Report, and to the responses plus the seven additional directions prepared by the Evaluation Committee. "Endorsed without change" by the RC therefore means endorsement of the EC's decisions, rewording, and the like. As Figure 3-3 indicates, the RC endorsed without change about 47 per cent (114) of the EC's decisions; modified about 31 per cent (76); and did not endorse about 21 per cent (53). The RC added eight new "Possible Directions" of its own, and felt it could not comment on three directions proposed in the Evaluation Report because of insufficient information (Appendix K).

The RC disagreed with the endorsement, modification or non-endorsement of the EC in twelve cases. In several of these cases, the EC had stated that the direction proposed in the Assessment Report was not within the mandate of SERP or that a comment on the direction was difficult without knowing the specifics (and should wait until the Design Committee could propose a detailed direction within an integrated framework). The RC disagreed with this position and dealt with the directions as proposed in the AR. The RC also disagreed with the EC on one substantive issue. Several directions proposed the consideration of differentiated diplomas to indicate different requirements to accommodate different streams of students based on their career goals and/or showing specialized areas of study. The RC did not endorse any direction that veered from a single, undifferentiated diploma. It was the RC's opinion that such differentiation should appear on the student's transcript, and that separate diplomas were neither necessary nor desirable (Appendix K).

Both the Evaluation Report and the Reaction Report record the committees' reasons for modification or non-endorsement of the possible directions. In approximate order of frequency, these reasons included (Appendices J and K):

1. The combining or linking of one direction with another or with several others.

2. Basic disagreement with the proposed policy direction.

3. Direction too specific or too vague.

4. The need to create a different tone, impression or emphasis.

5. The need to simplify the language so that it should be better understood.

6. Direction outside SERP's mandate.

7. The need to delay a decision on a matter until more information was available.

8. Direction too difficult to implement.

9. Direction too difficult to develop a suitable policy.

10. Inaccurate portrayal of present practice.

11. Direction contradicts another (preferred) direction.

When the Design Committee (DC) received all three reports, it had 251 "Possible Directions" to consider, as well as nine unresolved issues. Of the 251 directions, about 50 had been "not endorsed" by both the EC and RC, and the remainder had been carefully reviewed by these two independent groups. Out of this material, the DC generated 101 recommendations, and identified a half dozen unresolved issues. Recommendations and unresolved issues were written into a Discussion Paper which was then distributed for public validation. Many of these recommendations involved selecting one source of action from among several identified as "Possible Directions" in the previous three reports (Appendix L).

In addition, the Discussion Paper involved a modest reorganization of the order in which issues were introduced, and the development of an introduction presumably intended to be more appropriate for a public audience. Whereas the Goals of Education were a prominent feature near the beginning of each of the earlier reports, they were placed at the end of the Discussion Paper in a modified form. This decision was the subject of discussion in the first meeting of the Design Committee (Appendix L).

3.2.7 Question 11: The Final Report

- How did committee members move from the responses to the Discussion Paper to the Final Report in October 1981?

This question was answered by drawing on data in the minutes of meetings (Appendices H, J, K, L), miscellaneous SERP documents (Appendix M), and the interviews.

The invited response to the Discussion Paper resulted in more than 4,400 submissions, including write-in campaigns from specific groups such as the Music Educators of Ontario. The Steering Committee reviewed the public responses, made modifications in the original recommendations, and published the results as the Final SERP Report (Appendix H).

The input was summarized by members of the secretariat in terms of responses to specific recommendations. These summaries were then entered into an ONTERIS working file. When the committee wished to know, for example, how many responses had made reference to Grade 13 and, of these, how many were for its retention and how many against, the ONTERIS staff ran a computer program which could provide the answer in seconds. Not infrequently, the responses to any given recommendation cancelled each other out. The tabulated computer responses, however, were not able to report the quality of the submissions (e.g., the tone of the writing). The Steering Committee was dependent on the secretariat to provide this type of information (Appendix H).

A comparison of the Discussion Paper (DP) and the Final Report (FR) indicates the amount of change which resulted from the public responses (Appendix H):

1. The DP contained a total of 101 recommendations; the FR 98.

2. Of those recommendations which appeared in the DP:

    - 28 reappeared in the FR with no change;
    - 30 reappeared in the FR with only slight wording changes;
    - 15 reappeared in the FR with minor substantive changes;
    - 10 reappeared in the FR with major substantive changes;
    - 14 were combined and appeared as 7 recommendations in the FR; and
    - 4 were deleted.

    In sum, more than half of the DP recommendations remained virtually unchanged after the Steering Committee processed the responses to the DP. Major substantive changes were made to about 10 per cent of the recommendations; seven new recommendations were developed; and four DP recommendations were deleted.

3. New recommendations were generated primarily as a way to make specific decisions about matters identified in the DP as "Unresolved Issues Requiring Further Examination". These were as follows (unnumbered in the DP; numbers are as in the FR):

    - 38(FR) and 39(FR) regarding training places in industry;
    - 92(FR), 93(FR), and 94(FR) regarding the education of native peoples;
    - 95(FR) regarding interprovincial relations;
    - 96(FR) regarding the funding of private schools; and
    - 97(FR) regarding religious studies.

4. Other new recommendations included (numbers as in FR):

    - 28(FR) regarding involvement of the Special Education Branch in curriculum guideline development; and
    - 80(FR) regarding school boards' development of plans for providing needed in-service programs for their staff.

5. Recommendations in the DP which were dropped from the FR included (numbers as in DP):

    - 35(DP) regarding consolidation and reduction of the number of curriculum guidelines;
    - 60(DP) regarding the inclusion of job preparation units and greater use of Work Experience programs;
    - 61(DP) regarding drawing on the community more in arranging Work Experience programs; and
    - 67(DP) regarding the monitoring function of the Provincial Advisory Committee on Evaluation Policies and Practices.

6. Recommendations in the DP subject to major substantive modifications as they appeared in the FR included:

- 6(DP)/8(FR) regarding the distribution of credits: the number of compulsory credits was reduced, and the number of elective credits was increased (Explanation: Special interests; Incrementalism).
- 25(DP)/23(FR) regarding political and economic issues: was confined to a single guideline in Social Sciences rather than being integrated into many (Explanation: Simplicity in implementation).
- 26(DP)/24(FR) regarding external credits for music: Permission was given to continue these to the extent of current practice, as opposed to original recommendation to abolish them (Explanation: Special interests; Incrementalism).
- 40(DP)/40(FR) requiring the co-operative conduct of training programs: reduced to co-operative sharing of facilities (Explanation: Incrementalism).
- 57(DP)/36(FR) regarding in-school component of Co-operative Education: increased from 25 per cent to 33 per cent (Explanation: Incrementalism).
- 81(DP)/73(FR) regarding where boards can get help with problems of drug abuse, etc.: focus expanded from students only, to students and staff (Explanation: Economic rationality).
- 84(DP)/76(FR) regarding staff performance evaluation: focus expanded from teachers to all staff, and specific cycle of five years removed (Explanation: Incrementalism).
- 85(DP)/77(FR) regarding the requirement to record professional development to maintain certification: modified to a change in the staff performance evaluation process to allow for the presentation of evidence of professional development on a continuing basis (Explanation: Incrementalism).
- 87(DP)/(Unresolved issue in FR) regarding the inspection role of the ministry of Education in private schools: put in the context of a need for a separate study of private schools (Explanation: Political systems).
- 93(DP)/83(FR) regarding problems of maintenance of and adequately qualified teacher supply: three problems were identified in the DP; a fourth, based on the need to provide female role models, was added in the FR (Explanation: Political systems).

The Final Report also contained suggestions for implementing the 98 recommendations. Nine recommendations were seen as reinforcing existing policy and directions and, therefore, as being implementable within one year at little additional cost. Three recommendations were seen as requiring legislative changes which could be made immediately.

Eleven recommendations were seen as being related to ongoing responsibilities of the ministry which could be implemented at basically no additional cost within three years. Eleven recommendations were seen as being implementable within three years at some cost to the ministry. Ten recommendations were seen as being changes which should be implemented as soon as possible, but would involve considerable costs to the ministry. Ten recommendations were seen as involving processes which should be started immediately, and would require some funding to support new initiatives or expansion of existing programs. Nine recommendations were seen as requiring the co-operation of other agencies, and the processes involved should be begun immediately.

Twenty-nine recommendations related to the new OSSD were seen as needing to be implemented in sequence over a period of eight years at some considerable cost to the ministry. Six recommendations were seen as having to await the outcomes of other recommendations or as requiring further investigation.

3.2.8 Question 12: Effects of Policy Development

- What were the effects of policy development initiatives following April 1980 on various groups?

This question was answered by drawing on data in the miscellaneous documents related to SERP (Appendix M), the doctoral thesis written by Lambie (1985) (Appendix O), miscellaneous documents from the post-SERP period (Appendices P, Q and R), and the interviews (Appendix T).

3.2.8.1 On the Public At Large:

The Discussion Paper, published in April 1981 invited anyone interested in responding to the various recommendations to write to the project. Many individuals took the opportunity to write. The majority of letters from the "general public" expressed concern about standards, basic skills and knowledge, Grade 13, and preparation for employment. On most of these issues, those who wrote in support of a recommended change roughly equaled those who were against it (Appendix H).

The issue of funding for separate schools brought in the largest volume of mail from individuals. The Discussion Paper had recommended that funding at the secondary level be extended to the end of Grade 10 for all separate schools, but remained silent on the issue of funding to the end of Grade 13. The individual letters on this issue appear to have come mainly from devout Roman Catholics who wrote with great feeling about being financially stretched to keep their children in Grades 11, 12, and 13 in the separate school system. It was the opinion of several of those interviewed that submissions related to the separate school issue had been an organized lobby (Wilson, Bolton interviews).

The SERP activities, and associated public relations and media events during the summer and fall of 1981 increased public awareness about the changes being contemplated for secondary schools and expectations that "something would be done" (Appendix O; Fleck interview).

When the ministry published the ROSE Report, and later Circular OSIS, the general public responded by anticipating that changes would be introduced almost immediately. One principal, interviewed as part of the survey reported in Chapter 4, indicated that parents were generally confused about the real changes that OSIS had introduced. Some, for example, could not understand why their children were not able to begin a four-year program immediately or why some might take longer than four years to complete secondary school (also see Fleck interview). Others did not know how to advise their children about courses to be taken. The general lack of curriculum guidelines for the higher grades made course choice at the lower grades appear to be a gamble, and the new course calendars were often confusing about the type of student who should take advanced, general, and basic level courses (Appendix R).

The Minister commented in her interview that, while school personnel probably listened to Lambie speak on the changes being introduced, the parents were inclined to listen to her (Stephenson interview). Her speeches from that time, however, appear to be addressed to educators rather than to parents (Appendix P). It seems probable that not enough appropriate public relations activities were carried out which would inform parents about the changes directly affecting their children, but it is not clear what kinds of activities might have been helpful.

Finally, SERP recommended, and OSIS reinforced the policy that there should be more extensive communication between the school and the home with regard to student progress and problems. This aspect of SERP appears to have been implemented immediately by most schools, even before Circular OSIS was published - partly, one suspects because it placed some of the responsibility for student behaviour on the parents. It is not clear whether these policies have increased parent participation in school activities.

3.2.8.2 On the Ministry of Education:

Stephenson reported that ministry staff developed concepts and skills related to critical examination and flexibility, and a better sense of human resource development. The major influence for change was probably the Minister's decision to make ministry inquiry processes more collegial in nature (Stephenson interview); but the SERP chairman demonstrated how such processes could be managed, and practised in a working environment. Certainly the three education officers attached to the secretariat were impressed by the way in which Green managed the SERP committees, and his example probably had some spill-over effect on their work after 1981.

During the period from April 1980 to October 1981, the ministry, in particular the Curriculum Development Division, and Senior and Continuing Education Branch, worked on projects which supported SERP-related changes, but could progress without the final recommendations. These projects included (Appendix M):

- The development of computer education;
- The development and implementation of special education;
- The development and field testing of OAIP;
- The development of information systems for guidance (SGIS);
- Preparations for the planned curriculum renewal activities;

- Continuing education policies and programs;
- French immersion programs.

When the SERP Final Report was completed, the focus of the Curriculum Development Division (CDD), and Senior and Continuing Education Branch (SCE) shifted to the preparation of a response to the report's recommendations. William Lambie was appointed director of SCE, and assumed responsibility for developing the ministry's response as later outlined in a 1982-1990 program planning report, in the ROSE Report, and in the curriculum document to replace Circular HS1. In order to facilitate the development of a response, the SERP recommendations were assigned to the most appropriate ministry branch or division for additional discussion and further action (Appendix S).

The overall effect of the SERP activities was to get the ministry's work in the Intermediate and Senior Divisions moving again. Conditions and events in 1979 had resulted in a log jam in introducing changes into secondary education. In part, SERP was intended to give the ministry "time out" to examine the issues, and to begin moving again in the most appropriate directions. In this respect, SERP was highly successful (Podrebarac interview).

3.2.8.3 On Provincial Education Associations:

During the SERP activities, most provincial educational associations, and the affiliated teachers' federations submitted briefs to the project before the Assessment Report was completed, and in response to the Discussion Paper and the Final Report. For the most part, these briefs either recommended maintenance of the status quo or proposed changes that were cancelled out by the changes proposed by other groups.

One group, the Music Teachers of Ontario, mounted an effective campaign to change the recommendation that the external music credit be dropped. Their campaign took the form of a large petition plus letters and written briefs (Appendix H).

Other groups, such as the Business Educators, tended to use direct contact with ministry personnel, following the publication of the Final Report, as a means to ensure that their point of view was heard. Speakers from the SCE were invited to speak at meetings of such groups. Lambie attended as many meetings as possible, and was supported in these activities by Bell, Liebovitz and Giroux (Appendix P). While the speaker was there to talk about the ministry's response to SERP, as part of the SCE's public relations activities, group members took the opportunity to press their point of view. For example, business educators pressed for a compulsory credit in business education.

As with most policy initiatives, there were winners and losers in the outcomes. For the most part, the winners (FWTAO, Franco-Ontarians) proposed changes that were reinforced by strong support from within the Ministry of Education; while the losers (OSSHC, OTF) proposed changes which were viewed by the ministry as self-serving. The OSSTF was viewed as neither a winner nor a loser and as reasonably co-operative by the ministry (Appendix O).

Federation of Women Teachers' Associations of Ontario

The changes espoused by FWTAO related to the philosophical orientation of the subject-centred education proposed for Grades 7 and 8, and to required time allotments for subjects. With strong support from the ministry's Elementary Education Branch, the FWTAO argued that a subject-centred orientation ran counter to the general philosophy of integrated education followed in the elementary schools. A shift in orientation would require that teachers have access to extensive in-service education to help them make necessary changes in their teaching styles. Such changes would impose an additional burden on teachers who were already over-worked. The solution, worked out between the Elementary and SCE branches, was to develop a program that would gradually shift students from the integrated orientation of Grades 1 through 6 toward the subject orientation students would face in Grade 9 (Appendix P).

The original required time allotments were viewed as too restrictive in the integrated orientation of Grade 7. The proposed time allocations for subjects became minimum time allotments, and schools were encouraged to bring their Grade 7 and 8 programs within the range of these standards as quickly as possible. By 1985, most schools were still having trouble with the requirements in science, physical education, and the arts, due largely to lack of resources and expertise (Appendix R).

L'Association française des conseils scolaires de l'Ontario

The Franco-Ontarians were extremely vigilant about how matters related to education for French-speaking students were being addressed. In June 1980 l'Association française des conseils scolaires de l'Ontario requested that a French-speaking ministry officer be appointed to the secretariat, that a sub-group of French-speaking educators be formed within the overall SERP structure, and that all sessions at the proposed symposium be translated simultaneously into both French and English (Appendix M). The ministry accepted the first request and appointed Jacques Giroux to the secretariat. The second request was refused since the formation of a sub-group would run counter to the overall design of SERP, and each of the four committees had French-speaking representatives as members. A cost analysis was done for the third request. The costs for full interpretation services were prohibitive. Green recommended that all major presentations be translated simultaneously and that, at each of the concurrent sessions, at least one be designed to focus on the issues in French-language instructional units and be conducted in French (Appendix M).

The Franco-Ontarian groups were generally pleased that the Final SERP Report had recommended that Section 265 of the Education Act (1974; section 271 in the 1982 Education Act), which required that every French-speaking student complete at least four credits in English before receiving an SSGD, be repealed. However, when the ROSE Report was published in November 1982, this recommendation had been rejected. The problem was based on a profound difference in opinion about what was "best" for French-speaking Ontario students. The Minister believed that French-speaking students had to be protected in a province in which the language of the majority was English (Stephenson interview). To help French-speaking students achieve facility in English, she believed that all students in French-language instructional units should be required to complete the same number of English language credits (i.e., five) as students in English-language instructional units (Stephenson interview). Franco-Ontarians viewed this position as patronizing and unacceptable. They knew very well that their students had to be able to speak and write English and, further, that all French-speaking students would study English during each year of secondary education out of practical necessity. Giroux believed that ministry officials had taken this stance on the mistaken assumption that French-speaking students spoke and read English as poorly as Ontario English-speakers spoke and read French (i.e., very badly or not at all). In fact, most Ontario French-speakers, particularly students, are quite facile in the English language (Giroux interview).

The Franco-Ontarian groups wanted the Minister to recognize the necessity for maintaining French as the first language of instruction in French-language instructional units and, therefore, as being entitled to the same status as English in English-language instructional units (Appendix P) - that is, French-speaking students should be required to complete five credits in français and one in anglais while English-speaking students should complete five credits in English and one in French. The Minister described this plan as a necessary "symbol" for the Franco-Ontarian community, and agreed to it to avoid a major confrontation (Stephenson interview). Section 271 (Education Act, 1982) was finally repealed in 1984.

Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation

The OSSTF was viewed by the ministry as having worked hard to present their opinions and concerns, and as being co-operative in the consultation process (Appendix O). As a result of the SERP activities, and the participation of its president on the SERP Steering Committee, OSSTF changed its repeated call for staff reduction at the ministry, and requested that specialists in both curriculum development and subject content be added to assist in the curriculum renewal process (Wilson interview).

During 1980 and 1981, OSSTF attempted to ensure that its members attended various public meetings held by the secretariat in different locales, encouraged local groups to prepare briefs and submissions, and formed an internal committee to write a provincial submission and participate in the symposium (Wilson interview). When the Final Report was published, OSSTF came out strongly against changes in Grade 13, compulsory credit requirements and the number of credits required to graduate, and strongly in favour of the development of "packaged" courses for students working at the general level (Wilson interview). They were concerned that the proposed changes in diploma requirements would make graduating harder for general level students, and easier for advanced level students. They remain concerned about the effect of these changes and developed their own system for monitoring them. Lambie (1985) reported that toward the end of 1982, the concerns they brought to meetings appeared to shift from the likely results of OSIS, to the processes and responsibility for developing the new curriculum guidelines (Appendix O). OSSTF members served on curriculum project management teams, advisory committee and writing group, and as validators.

Ontario Secondary School Headmasters' Council

The OSSHC felt it had lost a great deal both in the SERP process and in subsequent activities. Members of OSSHC had formed the majority on the HS1 Advisory Committee. When that committee was shelved in 1980, the group felt cut off from direct access to the change processes affecting secondary education. In March 1980, they complained that no OSSHC member had been appointed to the SERP committees. In fact, none was appointed to the Steering Committee, but several were appointed to the Evaluation and Design Committees. With regard to SERP participation, the ministry appears to have viewed the OSSHC as a sub-group within the OSSTF and, since OSSTF was represented on the Steering Committee, OSSHC was indirectly represented (Podrebarac interview).

Sampson, who was chairman of OSSHC in 1980 and a member of the SERP Evaluation Committee, agreed that consultation activities on the development of the SERP recommendations had been excellent, but felt that the same process should have been used for the next stages (Sampson interview). Ministry documents indicate that OSSHC was consulted during the period in which ROSE and OSIS were being developed (Appendix P). The main concern for OSSHC members was that changes were being introduced, and a new secondary circular written without direct input from their members. Ministry personnel wrote a complete draft of *Circular OSIS* before presenting it to provincial educational associations for comment and validation (Liebovitz interview). OSSHC asked repeatedly that an HS1-type advisory committee be established (Podrebarac interview). In 1984, when a new advisory committee was established, it was designed to serve the Education Programs Division, and advise the Assistant Deputy Minister about all aspects of education, not just secondary education. OSSHC was asked to name a representative to this committee and did so (Appendix R).

Ontario Teachers' Federation

The OTF was viewed by ministry staff as being difficult to talk with (Appendix O). OTF representatives, in turn, expressed the opinion that SERP had addressed the wrong issues (Dixon interview), and that the number of non-educators on the committees was both problematic and unnecessary. OTF was not *directly* represented on any of the SERP Committees.

In response to the *Discussion Paper*, the OTF brief called for a change in recommendation 85 which stated: "In order to maintain their certification, teachers and principals be required to provide specific and recorded evidence of professional development on an ongoing basis". In the *Final Report*, recommendation 77 stated: "That in the development of the staff performance evaluation process, provision be made for the presentation of evidence of professional development on a continuing basis". Recommendation 65, which proposed that "strategies be developed which would allow students to have input to the development of policies and procedures in schools and to the assessment of the effectiveness of school programs and their delivery" was interpreted by OTF as recommending that students be granted the right to evaluate their own teachers. This recommendation was opposed by both the OTF and OSSTF. The ministry responded to recommendation 77 by referring the entire matter of teacher performance evaluation to further research, and to recommendation 65 by referring it to schools and school boards for their attention (Appendix S).

After the ROSE Report and Circular OSIS were published, OTF charged that the ministry had not consulted the senior federation, had changed the validation process for curriculum development, and had not honoured a verbal agreement with the previous Minister of Education that OTF and the ministry would jointly control all curriculum development committees (Dixon interview). During 1981, the ministry had developed a new approach to curriculum development (see memo, July 30, 1981, Appendix M). The request that the OTF be entitled to appoint half the members of each curriculum development committee was viewed as "ridiculous" by ministry officials (Appendix O). The ministry did request that the OTF name representatives who might participate in advisory and validation activities, but the OTF decided at that time not to participate further in curriculum activities (Appendix R, October 17, 1984).

When reviewing the issues which came between the ministry and the teachers' federations during the period under study, major problems often appeared to result from poor communication and differing definitions of very ordinary words such as "consultation", "validation", and "working committee". As the research team reviewed the documents, it seemed clear that the federations, particularly the OSSTF and the OTF, were defining consultation as "we'll tell you what we think should be done, and you'll follow our advice" (an advise-and-consent model) while the ministry defined consultation as "we'll listen to your advice but the final decision will be made on the basis of all advice received and our opinion of what will work best" (an accountability model).

The term "validation" does appear to have been redefined by the ministry sometime between 1979 and 1982, presumably under its responsibilities in the accountability model plus the Minister's desire (and SERP's strong recommendation) that a wide range of persons and groups be consulted in the curriculum development process. The ministry viewed validation from the beginning of SERP as a process in which anyone with intelligence and a valid opinion could participate (Stephenson interview), as long as the opinions were put in writing (Appendix H). The validation process used for the Discussion Paper was typical of the process. In the validation of the curriculum guidelines, the process was not open to the general public, but was open to any educator who had a stake in the outcome; that is, in the resulting guideline. Business, industry, and union representatives were included on some advisory committees. The fact that the ministry opened the validation process to so many different persons and opinions appeared to distress the OTF.

As with OSIS, the development of each curriculum guideline was directed by a small management team composed of ministry personnel, usually including a subject specialist seconded to the ministry for one or two years. This team steered the process of guideline(s) development, and selected writing teams to prepare different sections. An advisory committee consisting of affiliate, subject, COU, CAAT and Franco-Ontarian representatives was consulted on the overall design and content of the guidelines. Draft documents were usually prepared by ministry officials, and then sent out for validation, not to a committee of experts, but to a minimum of fifty educators knowledgeable in the subject area for reaction and comment and to selected organizations. Validators were given four months to respond (Appendix R). The draft guideline was then revised by the management team, edited, and prepared for final approval by the EPPC. The only points at which affiliate representatives had input were to the data gathering activities, to the advisory committee, and to the validation process. The major change for the OTF was that validation activities were carried out by individuals and local groups of subject specialists rather than a validation committee (with half the members appointed by the OTF) (Appendix P).

This change leads to the third term over which there appeared to be some disagreement, the "working committee". The ministry's definition of a working committee (e.g., Bell interview) was one that discussed the issues to be included in a document, and how each one would be described. Notes would be taken by a ministry officer attached to the committee, and he or she would then prepare a draft document based on these notes. At the next committee meeting, the draft document would be critiqued and later revised. Thus, the committee's "work" consisted of discussing and critiquing writing done by ministry staff (Bell, Wilson interviews). The hallmark of a working committee, as defined by non-ministry personnel (e.g., Sampson, Connelly interviews), was that committee members took work home with them to write draft documents for the committee's consideration at the next meeting. In this way, data gathering and writing were done by each committee member, and ministry personnel served on the committee in the same capacity as any other member. Only when the document had been completed by this process did ministry personnel take over the task of preparing the document for publication and distribution. In the ministry's terminology, such committees would be called the "steering committee" or "management team", and the "writing team".

These changes appear to have been introduced through the SERP process, partly by design and partly by evolution, and were later adopted in the development of OSIS and the curriculum guideline projects.

Finally, the ministry appears to have assumed that affiliate members who sat on various committees would keep their constituencies informed of that committee's activities (Appendix Q, letter October 13, 1983). When this did not happen, the affiliate was likely to charge that the ministry was not using enough consultative processes. When the new Advisory Committee to Education Programs was established in 1984, there were two stipulations for membership: first, each organizational representative had to serve for a minimum of two years, and second, these representatives were responsible for keeping their own constituencies informed about the committee's activities (Appendix R).

Association of Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology of Ontario

In July 1980, the committee of presidents for the CAATs had released a report outlining proposed changes in program provisions which impinged directly on the Ministry of Education (Appendix M). The proposed changes included:

- Offering professional development programs in special education for early childhood education teachers. The ministry's response was that the professional development of teachers was the mandate of the faculties of education, and that CAATs should stick to working with adults.

- Offering upgrading courses to fee-paying adult students, who had not earned an SSGD. The ministry's response was that offering courses at the secondary level encroached on the mandate of the secondary schools and charging fees for such courses implied that adult students could not obtain an SSGD without charge, contrary to the intent of the Education Act.

The colleges appear to have backed off from these suggestions and later entered into co-operative activities with the ministry to work on the design of senior courses and OAC guidelines. After the publication of OSIS, and changes in the Education Act, individual CAATs were able to enter into contracts with local school boards to provide basic education and upgrading courses to adult learners.

Council of Ontario Universities

The COU was initially unconcerned about the outcomes of SERP since members felt that nothing would come of the activity anyway (Monahan interview). Members of COU were split on the issue of eliminating Grade 13. However, when the possibility arose that Grade 13 would be eliminated, COU requested that the quality of educational standards of university entrants would not diminish and was reassured on that point. COU also wanted the ministry to specify a core component of the senior level curriculum that would be required of all students (Bell interview). The need for advanced level academic courses, in turn, led to the development of the OAC concept, essentially a Grade 13 course which a student, with the necessary prerequisites, could take in the fourth year of secondary education. A widely-held assumption was that without the academic standards of the Grade 13 courses, the universities would add one year to the three-year general degree (Fleck, Wilson interviews), although this was seen by the COU as being an assumption without foundation (Monahan interview).

The COU was asked to name persons who would sit on the advisory, writing, and validating committees responsible for developing the OACs. At the same time, the organization established a liaison relationship with the ministry to facilitate the exchange of information (Monahan, Bell interviews). At first, the COU was discouraged by the amount of time necessary to gear up the curriculum development process. However, once the projects were underway, the COU was hopeful that the OACs would meet the necessary standards for university entrance (Appendix P).

By 1985, the COU was still concerned about the potential "double cohort" of students which might appear any time between 1987 and 1990, and were keeping an open mind about the issue of student evaluation to assess progress and determine university admissibility. Both these problems were being monitored by the COU on a wait-and-see basis (Monahan interview).

3.2.8.4 On School Boards:

The main concern of school boards in 1980 was the implementation of Bill 82, and the development of curriculum resources and teacher expertise to adequately meet the needs of students with special needs.

By 1980, the large school boards in Ontario had been operating for more than ten years. During that time, they had been called on to do a great deal in terms of local curriculum development. When SERP began, the requests from boards largely focused on the need for assistance in curriculum development and implementation. Because of changes in funding arrangements and declining resources and enrolment, the boards felt they no longer had the necessary resources or personnel to develop a complete range of courses and curricular resources. They had found that much of their work was being duplicated by other boards, and felt such duplication was unnecessary (Podrebarac, Wilson interviews).

Therefore, when the ROSE Report and Circular OSIS were published, the main concern of the boards was whether or not the necessary curriculum guidelines would be ready in time to prepare the necessary courses. Most boards expressed concern that the ministry had not given them enough lead time to adequately prepare Grade 9 and 10 courses that would lead to the proposed Grade 11 and 12 courses and OACs which were to be ready for 1986 and 1987. Some teachers were so anxious to get started that they used the draft guidelines sent out for validation as their basis for planning future courses (Appendix R). Few boards developed long-term plans for implementing OSIS; rather one-year plans were developed as the need arose, and frequently were written down as the plan evolved (Appendix R).

The ministry, in response to these concerns, was of the opinion that existing Grade 11, 12, and 13 courses would suffice until new courses could be developed. The ministry granted school boards permission to delay implementation of OSIS for one year. While the OSSTF encouraged boards to request a delay until all curriculum guidelines were in place, only three boards requested a delay, and all later withdrew their application (Appendix Q).

Almost all boards responded immediately to the recommendations that course calendars be prepared for use by students and parents, and that a code of student behaviour be developed to guide disciplinary functions within the schools (Appendix R). Schools adopted several different approaches to the development of a code of student behaviour. Boards were to prepare a detailed document outlining various misdemeanours and the disciplinary methods to be used in each case. Schools, in turn, often adopted these instrumental documents as an interim code of student behaviour. However, the intent of the code of student behaviour was that it be a more philosophical statement which encouraged self-discipline and that it be developed by a school committee, composed of teachers, parents, and students (Appendix S).

At the same time as schools were preparing their codes of student behaviour, Tom Matsushita had been seconded to the ministry to prepare a guideline on student discipline. Matsushita began his work in 1982, and the draft document was ready by May 1984 (i.e., before OSIS was to be fully implemented). However, a numbered memorandum was sent to all directors of education and school principals in June 1982 calling for the development of a code of student behaviour by each school (Appendix P). Because of the timing, the guideline was not ready until after many schools had already written their own codes (Matsushita interview).

3.3 ANALYSIS OF POST-SERP ACTIVITIES

3.3.1 Question 13: Ministry Response to SERP

- What activities did the ministry undertake to respond to and implement SERP recommendations?

This question was answered by drawing on data in the doctoral thesis written by Lambie (1985) (Appendix O), miscellaneous documents from the post-SERP period (Appendices P, Q and R), the document Update '84 (Appendix S), and the interviews (Appendix T).

Immediately after the publication of the SERP Final Report, the ministry brought William Lambie into the Senior and Continuing Education as branch director. Lambie was a pragmatic educator from the field who was used to getting things done quickly. He was unprepared for the bureaucratic approach to decision making used in the ministry. He was also hard pressed to understand what he perceived to be a reluctance to introduce change and an attitude within the ministry that things could not be done quickly (Appendix O).

The Assistant Deputy Minister for Education Program Services, George Podrebarac, asked Lambie to prepare a draft of recommendations for dealing with the SERP report. A group of SCE education officers did an in-depth analysis of each SERP recommendation, and the first planning paper, prepared in December 1981, identified actions in three clusters (Appendix O):

- Those requiring restructuring of the curriculum on the organizational basis of Grades 7 through 12.

- Those requiring redesigning of curriculum guidelines to support this organization.

- Those defining the role of the ministry in ensuring the implementation of related policies.

When the initial planning report was presented to the branch directors of Education Program Services, Lambie's impression was that the group was more inclined to delay than to act. However, no changes were made in the plan, and Podrebarac was supportive (Appendix O).

The planning report also indicated that the majority of recommendations would be handled by the SCE and CDD, and that some would be referred to other ministry divisions for additional comment and action (see Appendix S). By January, Lambie and the SCE staff had completed a comment in response to each SERP recommendation and a further suggestion about which ministry branch or division should take additional action. In general, the recommendations handled by SCE and CDD were those dealing with changes that could be implemented within the educational system (i.e., restructuring the curriculum organization, redesigning the curriculum guidelines or responding to a recommendation at the board or school level) without requiring specific action from other ministry branches. Those referred to other branches and divisions dealt with interactions between the secondary system of education and other agencies, such as postsecondary institutions, community agencies, business and industry, other government departments, and so on (Appendix S).

Lambie also formed a group charged with the responsibilty of writing a curriculum circular to replace HS1, tentatively named "Circular I1S1". The committee, chaired by Liebovitz, was asked to prepare the document on the assumption that all the SERP recommendations would be accepted. The committee began the task in January 1982 (Appendix P). As changes in the recommended policy were made, the committee rewrote the document. Circular OSIS went through twelve drafts before it was ready for release to the affiliates for validation in late 1982 (Liebovitz interview). Bell specifically asked not to be included on this committee. It was his opinion that he had been too close to the HS1 document, and that his ideas might affect how the new document was prepared (Bell interview). In spite of his concern, large portions of OSIS were taken verbatim from HS1 (Appendix S). Giroux served on the committee as a French-speaking representative (Giroux interview). Other members included Goddard (Social Studies), Isford (Technological Studies), and Pasternack (Special Education). Each committee member had expertise in a different curriculum area, and each was assigned specific writing tasks in his or her area of expertise, as well as in other, more general areas (Appendix P).

OSIS was to be ready for review by the Executive Committee in April 1982 (it went to the Executive Committee in June 1982); was to be circulated in draft form for validation in September 1982 (it was first circulated in December 1982); and was to be the focus of a collective response at a conference in November 1982 (the ROSE Report was released at this conference, but not the curriculum circular). The final draft was to be ready for approval in January 1983, with full implementation in September 1984 (the final draft was ready in June 1983, and was mailed to school boards in September 1983 to be fully implemented in September 1984) (See Policy/Program Memo No. 760) (Appendix P).

In January 1982, a SERP Internal Steering Committee was formed. Its members included the Executive Director of CDD, Lambie, all branch directors within the division, and other persons as necessary (Appendix P). The main purpose of this committee was to control the decisions and instructions being directed to the I1S1/OSIS Committee, and to facilitate policy development activities within the Curriculum Development Division as a whole (Appendix O).

From November 1981 onward, members of the SCE engaged in a series of meetings with the affiliates and special interest groups to explain how the ministry was planning to respond to SERP, to clarify expectations, and to listen to the opinions and concerns of group members. Lambie, Liebovitz, Bell, and Giroux assumed responsibility for attending such meetings (Appendix P).

The CDD engaged in a series of activities partly in response to the SERP recommendations, and partly in response to the curriculum renewal activities which were already in the planning stages. These activities included (Appendix P):

- Developing a standardized student transcript.
- Developing a universal course coding system.
- Designing a new diploma and provincial certificate.
- Developing a document, entitled Schools General, based on recommendations in SERP and Issues and Directions, to outline the ministry's overall philosophy and goals in elementary and secondary education.
- Deciding the order in which guidelines would be developed or revised, establishing a management team for each, and preparing new or revised guidelines.
- Developing a new guideline on student discipline and a revised guideline on guidance and counselling.
- Developing materials on special education for secondary students.
- Developing policies on continuing education and its relationship to new secondary education policies.
- Preparing Correspondence Education materials with increased availability.
- Preparing a statement on evaluation.
- Further planning for the redesign and implementation of OAIP.
- Developing budget estimates and timelines for various aspects of the work.
- Planning for provincial reviews.

- Communicating and consulting with special interest groups.

The ministry decided against preparing a document to help school boards and schools prepare their course outlines and calendars, decided to include statements to parents about changes in secondary policies in Schools General, and did not prepare a "popular version" of Circular OSIS for parents and students. The ministry did prepare public relations materials on the policy changes but these appear to have been directed toward educators rather than the general public (Appendix Q).

The ministry's response to the SERP recommendations, the Renewal of Secondary Education in Ontario (ROSE Report), was published in November 1982. The new curriculum circular, Ontario Schools: Intermediate and Senior Division (OSIS) was circulated in draft form to the affiliates in December 1982, and to the schools, trustees, and other special interest groups in February 1983. By May 1983, OSIS had been revised, and was ready for submission to the EPPC. This draft was accompanied by an alternative proposal for the Elementary Branch. The EPPC asked that the directors of the Elementary and SCE Branches resolve their differences, and prepare a final draft which both could accept. The final draft was approved by the Executive Council on June 30, 1983 (Appendix Q).

The final version of Circular OSIS was circulated to the schools and school boards in September 1983. Boards were instructed that the policies described in the document were to be implemented in September 1984, unless the board requested a one-year delay for "compelling reasons". Such requests were to be made to a regional office by December 1, 1983. Three boards requested such a delay, and later withdrew their request (Appendix P).

Throughout 1982 and 1983, ministry officials continued to meet with the affiliates and other special interest groups separately. No mechanism had been established for meeting such groups through an advisory committee.

During 1983 work continued on existing projects already underway and, new projects were developed in the following areas:

- Development of a proposal to develop basic level education programs.

- Development of liaison relationships with COU and ACAATO and the inclusion of representatives of these two organizations on curriculum development teams.

- Preparation of a proposal to guide development of OACs.

- Preparation of a proposal on the formation of an advisory committee for Education Services.

- Development of the OSIS Provincial Implementation Plan and establishment of the curriculum project Management Team.

All projects proceeded in parallel with each having an impact on the others. Most education officers in the Curriculum Division had more work than they could manage (Giroux interview). In addition, the team managers of the curriculum projects met regularly as a group to deal with common problems such as:

- The proportion of core and optional content and student activities to be included in each OAC.
- The relationship of in-school and out-of-school components of co-operative education programs.
- The number and type of prerequisites for OACs.
- The format for publishing guidelines.
- The general rules to guide validation procedures.
- The ministry levels and committees that would have to pass judgement on the guidelines before final publication.
- Problems related to French translations.
- The role of OAIP in evaluation procedures.
- Relationship of universities to the development of OACs.

During the same time period, the OSIS CPMT met with regional officers to determine how implementation would be carried out throughout the province. Regional offices were beginning to receive questions about OSIS policies for clarification. In some cases, these questions affected the work of the curriculum development teams. A file of questions and official answers was prepared, and distributed to all regional offices and boards.

The possibility of establishing an Education Programs Advisory Committee was first discussed in 1983 (see August 23, 1983, Appendix Q). Several models were proposed including one that would advise SCE on the further development of OSIS. However, it was generally agreed that the most effective model would be a council to offer advice to the assistant deputy minister at the administrative level at which all aspects of educational programs came together. The council would deal with broad policy-planning issues, act in an advisory capacity, and not displace existing opportunities each interest group might have to affect the Minister, deputy minister or other ministry officials. A formal proposal to this effect was submitted to the Executive Committee in September 1983 by the new ADM for Education Programs, Duncan Green. The Education Programs Advisory Council (EPAC), consisting of 23 members (21 from education groups), had its first formal meeting in November 1984 (Appendix R).

3.3.2 Question 14: Development of OSIS

- How did the persons chosen to respond to SERP move from the recommendations in the *Final Report* to new policies for secondary education and the development of OSIS and what influenced this movement?

This question was answered by drawing on data in the doctoral thesis written by Lambie (1985) (Appendix O), miscellaneous documents from the post-SERP period (Appendices P and Q) and the interviews (Appendix T).

Beginning in January 1982, the SCE began preparing two documents, the *Report of the Secondary Education Review project and Program Planning for 1982-1990*, which provided the basis for the *ROSE Report*, and the curriculum circular *OSIS*. The OSIS writing team began their work on the assumption that all the SERP recommendations would be accepted. The planning report reflected ongoing changes in policy positions on selected issues. When a decision in the planning report was changed, OSIS was rewritten to reflect this change. Changes in the two documents proceeded in tandem until the publication of the *ROSE Report* in November 1982.

Early drafts of the planning report divided the recommendations into five clusters (expanded from the initial three) for further action:

- Those which focused on the ministry's expectations and requirements for education in general (to be reflected in *Schools General*), a restructured curriculum on the basis of Grades 1 through 6 and 7 through 12; and the curriculum changes necessary to support this reorganization.

- Those related to the development of guidelines as steering mechanisms for program planning and course construction.

- Those related to the implementation of new policies, to the monitoring and managing of professional practices, and focusing largely on the role of regional services.

- Those which addressed issues that were beyond education matters and needed to be reflected in public policy.

- Those which should be addressed by other divisions of the ministry (i.e., other than Education Programs Services), and by school boards and schools.

The planning document went through a series of drafts which provide a perspective on the major shifts in thinking about how the SERP recommendations should be implemented. These shifts continued to appear in the public drafts of OSIS. The issues in which major shifts occurred included the following.

Diploma requirements:

The recommendation for a single diploma, the Ontario Secondary School Diploma (OSSD) was accepted, and was to be based on a 30-credit system. Of these thirty credits, fourteen were to be compulsory (Appendix P). With each successive draft of the report, the number and type of compulsory credits changed. The credit in guidance was dropped when it was decided that none of the credits should be made grade-specific. The number of language credits varied between four and five throughout the documents. In July a compulsory credit in business education was added, and in August a compulsory credit in French or anglais as a second language was added.

In the final OSIS document, the compulsory credits numbered sixteen, and included one additional credit in both the first and second languages and one in business education. In comparison to the compulsory credits called for in Circular HS1, 1979-81, one credit in each of English, Science, and the Social Sciences was added, and the credits in the Arts, French as a second language, Business Education, and Physical Education were all new for English-speaking students. For French-speaking students, three credits in anglais were dropped, five in français, one in Science and the Social Sciences were added, and the additional credits in the Arts, Business Education, and Physical Education were all new. In comparison to SERP, which recommended the equivalent of fourteen compulsory credits, additional courses were to be required in the first language and business education (Appendix P).

The difficulty of eliminating Grade 13 was not resolved until July 1982. Until that time, it was assumed that the most practical methods for eliminating Grade 13 were either to move the secondary curriculum downward into Grades 7 and 8 - an idea which was resisted strongly by elementary educators - or to compact the five-year curriculum into four with appropriate adjustments at each grade level. Ministry officials were of the opinion that they did not have sufficient resources (time, money and expertise) to act on either of these options (Wilson, Liebovitz interviews).

The July draft of the report recommended that advanced Grade 13 courses be retained, renamed Ontario Academic Courses (OACs), and that students proceeding to post-secondary institutions be given the opportunity to take these courses as credits toward the thirty required for graduation. This plan meant that the distribution of content within the advanced curriculum for Grades 9 - 11 would need to be readjusted so that students would be ready to study the OACs by Grade 12, but would leave the general level courses for Grades 9 through 12 relatively unchanged. In addition, the plan provided a resolution to the problem of modifying the Grade 7 and 8 curriculum. The plan also resolved the concerns of the COU about the quality of the education received by university entrants (Appendix P).

From July to October, a major unresolved issue related to the credit system was whether the proposed six OACs necessary for university entrance would be part of the thirty credits required to receive an OSSD (the "30(6) model") or would be taken after the student had completed the OSSD (the "30 + 6 model"). Lambie, to assist in making the decision, prepared a decision matrix which outlined these two models, plus two others (the "HS1 model" and the "SERP model"). He outlined the pro's and con's of each and made a strong recommendation for the 30(6) model. The deputy minister argued for the 30(6) model. The argument was resolved in October in favour of the 30(6) model (Appendix P).

Language Requirements:

The initial drafts of the planning report recommended that students be required to complete either 4 or 5 language credits in their language of instruction - that is, students in English-language instructional units would take the credits in English, and students in French-language instructional units would take français. The initial drafts also accepted the SERP recommendation that Section 265 of the 1974 Education Act be repealed. In August, the draft added an additional language credit in French or anglais as a second language (Appendix P).

As an outcome of the Minister's meeting with the Premier, the ROSE Report, which was published in November 1982, rejected these recommendations. Section 265 would not be repealed and all secondary students would take five credits in English (anglais for French-speaking students) and one in French (français for French-speaking students) (Appendix O). The Franco-Ontarian community reacted rapidly and angrily. Again, Lambie developed a decision matrix outlining a series of possible options for students in French-language instructional units (including immersion students) (Appendix P):

- 5 anglais and 1 français
- 4 anglais and 1 français
- 3 anglais and 3 français
- 2 anglais and 4 français
- 1 anglais and 5 français (i.e., equivalency status for first and second languages in both English- and French-language instructional units).
- 2 anglais and 2 français and 2 optional choices.

He outlined the pro's and con's of each option, including the likelihood of each being acceptable to the Franco-Ontarian community. The issue was not settled until March 1983 when the Minister agreed on the equivalency option and the repeal of Section 265 of the 1974 Education Act (Section 271 of the 1982 Education Act).

Program for Grades 7 and 8:

All the drafts of the planning report refer to the development of curriculum guidelines on a 7-12, 7-12/13 or 7-12/OAC basis, that is, the curriculum was to be designed

80

from Grade 7 upward. Early drafts specified "reasonably specific time allotments on a subject-oriented basis for Grades 7 and 8. By late spring, 1982, the word "reasonably" had been dropped and in July this had become "minimum time allotments" although the proposed subjects and time allotments were not indicated (Appendix P).

However, the FWTAO and education officers of the Elementary Branch were unhappy with the subject orientation. When the final draft of OSIS was presented to EPPC for approval, the Elementary Branch presented a counter-proposal. The EPPC requested that the directors of the Elementary and SCE branches meet and adjust the OSIS model to resolve the problem. The subjects were organized into clusters, which more nearly approximated those used to define the elementary school curriculum, and provided more flexible time to be devoted to personal and practical studies including locally developed electives.

In this plan, the Arts, Science, Physical and Health Education gained some time, while the Language Arts lost some (largely through the shift in the dramatic arts). Circular OSIS states that the guidelines for the various subjects can be "used individually or in combination as the policy framework for local curriculum development and program design" and that "the specified time allocations do not preclude an integrated approach to the curriculum" (Circular OSIS, p.14).

Curriculum Guidelines

Once Circular OSIS had been distributed the next major tasks involved revising or developing new curriculum guidelines, particularly for the OACs, and carrying out the necessary implementation activities. These two sets of activities proceeded in parallel, the consequences of one affecting the other. Regional offices were called on to clarify a wide variety of queries about OSIS policies. As the questions came in, some had direct relevance to how particular guidelines were written. For example, the revision of the mathematics guidelines was imperative if students were to be ready to take an OAC in mathematics by 1987. It was also clear that only selected students (i.e., those entering engineering, science or mathematics) needed or wanted in-depth studies at the advanced level. Therefore, it was decided to reorganize the content of the mathematics program rather than to compress it. A student can take both Grade 11 and 12 advanced mathematics courses in Grade 11. In Grade 12, the fast-tracking, university-bound student could then take OACs in calculus and algebra/geometry. Fast-tracking students who needed only one mathematics credit to enter an arts program at university could take the Grade 11 advanced mathematics course and then take an OAC in finite mathematics (Liebovitz interview).

As the guidelines were being prepared by one set of committees, another committee was meeting over the question of evaluation. Several proposals were put forward ranging from the re-establishment of provincial examinations for the OACs to maintenance of the status quo. Once the curriculum had become standardized through the introduction of core content in each subject area, the major hurdle would be to find a way to standardize the means used by teachers to evaluate their students. A proposal put forward by Jerry George to develop standardized methods for evaluating outcomes in English courses offered a viable alternative to provincial examinations. The proposal is still being evaluated through pilot projects.

George's proposal allowed teachers to develop their own examinations within a standardized format consisting of various types of evaluative tools. Students would be given examples of each type of evaluative tool to help them prepare for the final examination. Teachers would mark students' work, and submit both the year-end examination and samples of marked student papers across a range of marks. The ministry would prepare a survey of sample examinations and marked answers for the universities, and would also prepare a summary of what core content and skills students could be expected to have attained. Some ministry officials felt that this approach would satisfy the universities need to know what the students had already learned in a specific subject area, and how they had been evaluated by their teachers. The workshops developed to help implement this evaluation approach appeared to provide effective professional development activities for teachers, and assisted in implementing the new English guidelines (Liebovitz, Bell interviews).

The validation process used in the development of curriculum guidelines was also a new process which involved both selling the new curriculum to potential users, and educating them in ministry expectations. In some cases, as indicated earlier, schools and teachers were so anxious to initiate new courses, they used the validation versions of guidelines as the basis for their own curriculum development (Appendix R).

A document approval procedure was established to guide the development, validation, revision, and publication of each curriculum guideline. Once the document had been developed by the management and writing teams, and approved by the advisory group, the validation draft was submitted to the Curriculum Branch Documents Panel. This panel checked the document for consistency with ministry policy, coherence with other documents, overlap between documents, clarity of message, and educational validity. It consisted of one member from each affinity group within the branch. The validation draft was then recommended for release by the Curriculum Branch director to ensure that the document had internal support. Validation copies were sent to the OTF, the COU, the ACAATO, all directors of education, ministry personnel, and other professional groups and individuals as appropriate. Validators were given four months to respond. The document was then revised and reapproved by the documents panel and submitted for fine editing. Next the document was submitted for discussion and approval to the branch directors, then to the EPPC. Finally, the document went to the Assistant Deputy Minister, Education Programs, for approval to publish (Appendix R).

It was decided that French translations did not need to be considered by the documents panel but that unique documents created for French-language courses should be considered by a French-language document panel (Appendix R). All guidelines translated from English to French had to pass the scrutiny of a Franco-Ontarian advisory group associated with each curriculum project. Care was taken to ensure that the French translations of culturally-sensitive material were appropriate for the potential users, and not just literal translations of the English material (Giroux interview).

Guidelines for OACs were the subject of a special proposal. All prerequisites and co-requisites were to be determined by the ministry. It was decided that one senior division advanced level course (in most cases the Grade 11 course) would be required for each OAC. Each guideline was to provide both an academic or intellectual emphasis and some practical or applied aspects. Each guideline was to outline both a content component (i.e., knowledge and skills) and a process component (i.e., student activities). The core content and processes (i.e., the compulsory aspects of the guideline) were to form 80 per cent of the guideline and both components were to be evaluated in determining the student's final mark (Appendix Q).

3.3.3 Question 15: Ministry Orientation Activities

- What orientation activities were undertaken by the ministry and how were these activities selected?

This question was answered by drawing on data in the miscellaneous post-SERP documents (Appendices P, Q, and R), and the interviews (Appendix T).

The first implementation activity undertaken with regard to Circular OSIS was a Curriculum Development Division workshop on CRDI held in late November 1982. The ROSE Report was released at this workshop. In the days prior to the workshop, ministry officials prepared a series of answers to probable questions which would emerge as people read the ROSE Report. The workshop itself was held to discuss (Appendix P):

- The needs not adequately addressed by SERP and how to deal with them.
- The benefits and concerns regarding the use of computers in schools.
- The benefits and concerns regarding the possible use of a Grade 12 exit test in English.
- The benefits and concerns arising from the changes proposed in Circular OSIS.

Responses from this workshop, from those who read the ROSE Report, and from the affiliates who were given draft copies of Circular OSIS indicated that several problems had to be resolved before Circular OSIS reached its final form. The most contentious was the issue of language credits. Other concerns included the question of prerequisites for OACs for long-range planning purposes, the role OAIP would play in the implementation of Circular OSIS, and the relationship between the OACs and future admission criteria for post-secondary institutions (Appendix P).

By August 1983, the Director of Regional Services was expressing concern about the need to develop a long-range forecast of activities to help principals and teachers understand what would need to be implemented then. He felt that the ministry might be creating unwarranted concerns regarding the projected amount of activity which would be required over the next ten years. The need to implement special education programs, adapt new curriculum guidelines, develop new courses at three levels of difficulty, and implement new organizational policies might be viewed as overwhelming by school personnel (Appendix Q).

The OSIS curriculum project Management Team held its first meeting in late August 1983. The final draft of OSIS was reviewed and potential questions from schools and school boards were clarified. It was decided that a file of such questions and the relevant replies should be developed and computerized if possible. The Provincial Implementation Plan was reviewed and modified. The major objectives of the plan were as follows (Appendix R):

1. To disseminate OSIS to ministry personnel, trustees, supervisory officials, principals, teachers, OISE, and faculties of education officials. A newsprint version of OSIS was to be prepared for parents, students, and the public at large.

2. To create an awareness and understanding in the above groups of the expectations of the Ministry of Education for programs in Grades 7 and 8 of the elementary schools, and the grades of the secondary schools, including the requirements for the awarding of the OSSD and the Certificate of Education through the preparation of videotapes, TV briefs, poster-type fact sheets, and the like. Meetings were to be held with RECs, RCCs, board personnel, and guidance personnel at all levels. Regional seminars were to be presented in co-operation with OSSTF, AEFO, OSSHC, and others. Meetings were to be held with trustees, municipal councillors, business and industry representatives, chambers of commerce, boards of trade, labour groups, industrial training councils, and home and school associations. Discussions were to be held with university and community college officials.

3. To facilitate the implementation of the policy document throughout the province by computerizing the policy decisions and responses to questions about how to implement OSIS.

4. To monitor the implementation of the policy on an ongoing basis through collecting relevant data each year. Various types of data were considered, and those relevant to each year of implementation were gathered by regional offices.

5. To ascertain changes in the effects of the policy changes through a longitudinal study.

6. To review, survey, audit, and/or assess OSIS policies and procedures up to 1988-89 in order to revise the policies and the document.

The plan was managed by the OSIS Curriculum project Management Team. The team consisted of Liebovitz, Lipischak, Bennett, Sullivan, and Blake plus representatives from regional offices.

The first OSIS Implementation Conference was held in the Central Region in November 1983. In May 1984, the Central Region decided to set up a joint planning committee with each school board assigning a staff person to act as OSIS co-ordinator. A network of boards was to work together and select two members to represent the group at regional committee meetings. This approach was viewed as the most effective means for disseminating information, and responding to questions of general interest (Appendix R).

Prior to September 1984, there was a considerable amount of speculation about the effects of OSIS implementation. In May the OSSHC reported on predicted trends; in June the OSSTF released a report based on course enrolment forms completed by Grade 8 students (Appendix R). The first hard data available from the ministry were released in May 1985. These data supported some of the trends predicted by the affiliates (Appendix R):

- Enrolment in Grade 9 was down 16 per cent.
- Grade 9 enrolment in technology studies was down by nearly 30 per cent. Many technology teachers had been declared surplus, and could not be placed in other positions.
- Grade 9 enrolment in family studies was down by 20 per cent.
- Grade 9 enrolment in the arts was down but not by as much as the overall enrolment.
- Grade 9 enrolment in French was up by 50 per cent.

The type of data gathered during the 1984-85 school year related to activities which could and should have been in place by September 1984:

- A course calendar.
- A code of student behaviour.
- Courses at three levels of difficulty for Grade 9.
- Teaching time in Grades 7 and 8 distributed according to the proposed time allotments.
- The pattern in which students were taking compulsory credits.
- Long-term planning for the coming years.

Planning for 1985-86 indicated that data would be collected to examine patterns of enrolment from Grades 9 through 12; credits obtained for the provincial certificate and diploma; what alternative means students selected to obtain credits; classroom organization, particularly with regard to bi-level courses and multi-grade classes; and continuing monitoring of the issues reported above (Appendix R).

In December 1984, the establishment of regional forums for curriculum implementation, and of a provincial steering committee to co-ordinate activities was proposed. The steering committee would report annually to the directors of regional offices and the director of the Curriculum Division. The regional forums were to be responsible for identifying curriculum initiatives requiring emphasis for the ensuing year; planning and co-ordinating curriculum implementation activities to support new guidelines; allocating funds to support curriculum priorities; and sharing materials and expertise (Appendix R).

3.3.4 Question 16: Implementation Activities

° What were the effects of orientation activities in terms of the array of implementation activities initiated by school boards?

This question was answered by drawing on data in the miscellaneous post-SERP documents (Appendices P, Q, and R), the interviews (Appendix T), and the survey (Chapter 4).

The 1984-85 Circular OSIS monitoring report (Appendix R) indicates that about one-half of the 105 boards surveyed had developed implementation plans. According to the report "these plans are being written as implementation takes place. Very few systems have developed a plan beyond the one-year time limit and most feel that it is better to have the plan evolve on a year-to-year basis" (see May 24, 1985, Appendix R).

Most schools (97 per cent) had prepared outlines of courses, and most of these were judged to be understandable by parents and students. Only 16 per cent of the schools had developed Grade 9 basic level courses. Some schools did not offer courses at all levels of difficulty. Although this was not mandatory, such policies require some students to substitute courses because they had no alternatives (Appendix R).

Some boards were requiring that all students attempt all compulsory courses and, only after the student had failed, could he or she request the application of the substitution rule. The OSIS CPMT recommended that the substitution policies of boards and schools be included in future monitoring activities (Appendix R).

Most schools were requiring that students take at least five or six compulsory credits in Grade 9; some required seven. Other schools were deliberately avoiding "front-end loading" by requiring that only four compulsory credits be taken in Grade 9. The CPMT recommended that the ministry provide school boards with information regarding the extent and impact of front-end loading on other subjects being made available in Grades 9 and 10 (Appendix R).

All schools had a code of student behaviour in place which was based on "common sense and trust" (May 24, 1985, Appendix R). In most cases, a rule book was provided for both parents and students and, in many cases, the code outlined the typical infractions and consequences for such misdemeanours. Some elementary schools had adopted codes of student behaviour although this was not required of them (Appendix R).

Many school personnel felt overwhelmed by the extent to which the implementation of OSIS policies was being monitored by the ministry (Appendix R). Some principals who responded to the survey questionnaire commented that they were being called on to provide information about OSIS-related activities rather more often than they would have liked. The song, duplicated in Appendix R, implies these types of feelings.

3.3.5 Question 17: Obstacles to Implementation

- What obstacles were encountered by school boards in implementing OSIS, and how were these obstacles overcome?

This question was answered by drawing on data in the miscellaneous post-SERP documents (Appendices Q and R), and the survey (Chapter 4).

Obstacles encountered by school boards

Many courses of study (850 reviewed in 172 schools) in secondary schools were not following OSIS guidelines. Principals were attempting to deal with this problem but were also awaiting up-to-date ministry guidelines. The most serious problem was that the methods of evaluation described for a given course did not necessarily reflect the objectives of the course (Appendix R).

Some school calendars (172 reviewed) had the following inaccuracies (Appendix R):

- The continued reference to areas of study in the Grade 9 program;
- The failure to include common course codes;
- Inappropriate statements about the type of students who should select courses at various levels of difficulty;
- References made regarding prerequisites did not reflect the intent of OSIS; and
- Statements regarding the Ontario Student Transcript, evaluation policies, examination policies, co-operative education, and linkage programs were missing.

Sometimes a particular program was not being offered in the school and, therefore, was not described in the calendar. However, most school calendars included most of the items prescribed in OSIS. The CPMT recommended that a resource document be prepared that would provide assistance to secondary school staffs in preparing courses of study and school course calendars. This action had been recommended by SERP but was initially rejected by the ministry (Appendix S).

Policies related to substitutions for compulsory credits had not been developed by many schools. Most boards were recommending that substitution be delayed as long as possible so that students could retain greater flexibility of choice in later grades. CPMT recommended such procedures be part of any future regional monitoring of OSIS implementation (Appendix R).

Some schools had sought blanket exemptions for Native students from the compulsory second language credit. The regulations provide only for substitution on an individual basis. Non-guideline courses in a Native language have been approved for use in Grades 9 and 10, but may not be used as a substitute for a second language credit (Appendix Q).

"Front-end loading" (i.e., requiring Grade 9 students to take a large number of compulsory credits) was viewed as a potential problem. The ministry was considering recommending against front-end loading so that Grade 9 students could take a more expanded and interesting curriculum (Appendix R).

There was a decline in Technological Studies and Family Studies. While there had been a trend in this direction before Circular OSIS was published, the front-end loading associated with OSIS had contributed to the decline in the number of students selecting these courses in Grade 9 (Appendix R).

The arts, physical and health education, and science were not receiving the appropriate amount of instructional time in Grades 7 and 8. Some of the reasons stated included fewer music consultants in boards, lack of physical education facilities, and lack of teachers with background in these areas. CPMT recommended that any communication to boards include a statement emphasizing the Circular OSIS section which states that a balanced program in the arts should be provided in each of Grades 7 and 8 (Appendix R).

Concern was expressed over the absence of a fourth level of difficulty. Some boards were getting around this by offering a modified basic level program (Wilson interview, Appendix R). Ministry officials assumed that OSIS had enough flexibility to allow for such adaptations. Fleck commented that the three levels were only nominal points on a spectrum of skills and abilities which eliminated the need to define all such points at the official level (Fleck interview).

Concern was expressed about the fifth English credit, and how it would be offered to "fast-trackers" (Appendix R).

While bi-level courses and multi-grade classes had not yet become a problem, it was assumed that they would become more prevalent as enrolments declined (Appendix Q).

French-language instructional units were experiencing a higher degree of front-end loading than English-language units. In order to maintain fluency in the English language, students in FLIUs were taking a credit in anglais in each secondary year which was equivalent to nineteen compulsory credits. This fact reduced the flexibility of FLIUs in offering a wide range of optional courses - a problem which had been cited in SERP for further investigation - and affected timetabling and planning processes (Giroux interview).

Many students working at the basic level in English-language instructional units were requesting substitution for the second language credit. By 1985, the fact that a good basic level course for French as a Second Language had been developed was likely to lead to fewer substitutions being granted (Giroux interview).

Over 60 per cent of secondary schools were operating on a semestered system. CPMT recommended that the extent and impact of semestering in secondary schools be part of the 1985-86 monitoring activities (Appendix R; Wilson, Liebovitz interviews).

Schools were turning to semestering to keep their school population, particularly those students who had only three or four more credits to complete. As few as fifty students leaving a full-term school to attend a semestered school could effectively wipe out a carefully planned program. A large number of students completing their diploma at the end of the first semester had the same effect (Wilson interview). The CPMT planned to examine the effects of semestering during future Circular OSIS monitoring activities.

One principal interviewed for the survey reported that the main objective for students in basic level work experience programs was being viewed as ensuring that students became employed. In some cases, students were being kept on at their assigned work stations as full-time employees. This tended to reduce the number of available work stations for other students. However, employers were often letting such students go in less than three months. A population of "in-and-out" students had developed as a result. One explanation for this phenomenon might be that employers kept students for 89 days, then terminated their employment before the student could become a member of the union, and gain the protection of union benefits. Co-operative education programs were not being seen in the same way since many were designed for students working at the general and advanced levels to enhance their academic experience.

3.3.6 Question 18: Problems with Implementation

- What problems were encountered by the ministry in implementing OSIS and how were these problems overcome?

This question was answered by drawing on data in the miscellaneous post-SERP documents (Appendices Q and R) and the survey (Chapter 4).

Some boards were using policy on fractional credits to create courses for credit which concentrated on one isolated segment of a guideline. The result was an increasing trend toward the creation of grant-supported special interest offerings similar in content to the non-credit courses for which grants were discontinued (Appendix Q).

Some boards had interpreted the policy on co-operative education to mean that adults who were employed full- or part-time qualified for co-operative education credits if some aspect of their employment activity was related to the course being studied (Appendix Q).

The definition of an OAC in Circular OSIS did not not preclude the possibility that a non-guideline OAC could be offered. A new policy was issued stating that all non-guideline OACs had to be submitted for approval to a regional office of the ministry (Appendix Q).

None of the sections of Circular OSIS which discussed co-operative education related it to OACs. There was nothing which would prohibit offering an OAC through the co-operative education mode. A new policy was issued stating that the co-operative education component of an OAC could not exceed two-thirds of the course, and no OAC could be offered solely on a co-operative education basis (Bell interview, Appendix Q).

In 1984-85, the focus of OSIS-related changes had been on school mechanics. In the view of the Central Ontario OSIS Committee teachers had not yet seen the relevance of the changes in terms of the classroom and principals were not comfortable in the role of curriculum leaders (Appendix R).

The Director of the Curriculum Branch (Roy) reported that there was a funding shortfall of approximately $2.5 million for developing policy documents to implement OSIS (Appendix R).

The same memo reported that (Appendix R):

- There were many teacher dislocations because of student enrolment patterns under OSIS. This related to both loss of teachers in certain subject areas and assignment of teachers to areas for which they were not qualified.

- A drop in enrolment in many optional courses was anticipated in small and medium secondary schools.

- There was considerable difficulty in providing text materials at all levels of difficulty to support the new guidelines. A ministry directive indicated that new textbooks must adhere not only to the content of a new guideline but also to the teaching strategies appropriate to the level.

- A considerable amount of pressure had been brought to bear by some special interest groups to have their segment of a curriculum expanded (e.g., creationists, holocaust, and so on).

- There was considerable apprehension about the availability of spaces in colleges and universities for the enlarged cohort of eligible students created by the first wave of graduates under OSIS policies.

All curriculum guidelines could not be translated directly from English into French. Sometimes the content required an examination of the cultural context which might affect the content. As a result, every guideline project had a French-language advisory committee (Giroux interview).

Courses offered through night school, summer school, and correspondence education would have to be carefully assessed to reduce variability in the content and process components and in evaluation standards used (Appendix R).

3.3.7 Question 19: Factors Affecting Implementation

- What factors appeared to have the most/least effect on the initiation of Circular OSIS implementation?

This question was answered by drawing on data in the survey. The detailed analysis of results from the survey is provided in Part II of this report.

Chapter 4

POLICY DEVELOPMENT

4.1 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON POLICY DEVELOPMENT

Our assumptions in approaching the research literature concerning policy development and policy implementation were: (a) that the processes were likely quite interdependent and (b) that the methods used in reviewing both sets of processes could be the same. Although we still hold the first of these assumptions, it quickly became apparent that the research community had approached them as though they were quite independent. As a consequence, we have reported our review of results in two separate sections. Our assumption concerning the use of common review methods was tempered by our initial finding that these two literatures were quite different in character: the policy development literature is heavily theoretical with extremely limited empirical data undergirding it; the policy implementation literature is much more empirically driven, and shows less clarity and consensus on the conceptual perspectives represented. As a consequence, our review of policy development literature describes the conventional theoretical orientations presented in that literature, whereas our review of the implementation literature is organized around our own unique framework for understanding the process.

4.2 THE POLICY DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Literature concerning the policy development process is examined in two sections: first, we examine the theoretical perspectives that have been developed to better understand and explain the process; then we review selected empirical studies carried out in Ontario directly relevant to this research project.

4.2.1 Alternative Perspective on Policy Development

Dye (1972) has provided a useful classification of theoretical perspectives on the policy development process. In this section, we initially review theoretical work on policy development using Dye's classification system. Then we compare his classification system with several others.

Defining public policy as "whatever governments choose to do or not do", Dye (1972) suggests six theoretical perspectives on public policy: systems theory, elite theory, group theory, rational decision-making theory, incrementalism, and institutionalism. Each of the models is offered as a separate way of thinking about policy none of which could be viewed as the best model. Dye (1972) also identifies six criteria for assessing the usefulness of each model:

1. A model should allow us to order and simplify political life so that we can think about it more clearly, and understand the relationships we find in the real world.

2. A model should help us identify the significant variables.

3. A model should be congruent with reality, that is, it should have empirical referents.

4. A concept, or model, should also communicate something meaningful.

5. A model should help to direct inquiry and research into public policy.

6. A model should suggest an explanation of public policy.

4.2.1.1 Systems Theory

Systems theory (see Figure 4-1) conceives of public policy as the response of a political system to forces brought to bear upon it from the environment. Dye (1972) claims:

> Forces generated in the environment which affect the political system are viewed as inputs. The environment is any condition or circumstance defined as external to the boundaries of the political system. The political system is that group of interrelated structures and processes which functions authoritatively to allocate values for a society. Outputs of the political system are authoritative value allocations of the system, and these allocations constitute public policy.

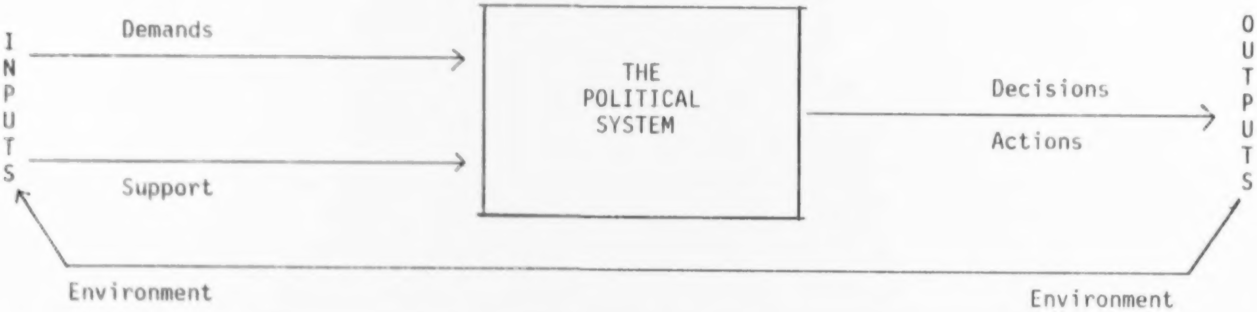

Figure 4-1: Systems Theory (Dye, 1972)

The conceptualization provided in Figure 4-1 is based on the work of David Easton (1965). The important questions raised by this model include:

- What are the significant dimensions of the environment that generate demands upon the political system?

- What are the significant characteristics of the political system that enable it to transform demands into public policy, and to preserve itself over time?

- How do environmental inputs affect the character of the political system?

- How do characteristics of the political system affect the content of public policy?

- How do environmental inputs affect the content of public policy?

- How does public policy affect, through feedback, the environment and the character of the political system?

4.2.1.2 Elite Theory

Elite theory focuses on the preferences and values of the governing elite. The key features of elite theory can be summed up as follows (Dye, 1972):

- Society is divided into the few who have power and the many who do not. Only a small number of persons allocate values for society; the masses do not decide public policy.

- The few who govern are not typical of the masses who are governed. Elites are drawn disproportionately from the upper socioeconomic strata of society.

- The movement of non-elites to elite positions must be slow and continuous to maintain stability and avoid revolution. Only non-elites who have accepted the basic elite consensus can be admitted to governing circles.

- Elites share consensus on the basic values of the social system and the preservation of the system. In America, the bases of elite consensus are the sanctity of private property, limited government, and individual liberty.

- Public policy does not reflect demands of masses, but rather the prevailing values of the elite. Changes in public policy will be incremental rather than revolutionary.

- Active elites are subject to relatively little direct influence from apathetic masses. Elites influence masses more than masses influence elites.

4.2.1.3 Group Theory

Group theory (see Figure 4-2) is based on the proposition that interaction among groups is the central fact of politics. In this model, individuals with common interests band together to press their demands upon government. The group, in effect, is a bridge between the individual and the government. The task of the political system is managing group conflict by establishing rules for group competition; arranging compromises and balancing interests;

enacting the compromise in the form of public policy; and enforcing these compromises (Dye, 1972). The political system, then attempts to maintain an overall equilibrium.

Reflecting both group and elite theory, Morgan (1984) contrasts democratic and centralized approaches to policy formation. According to Morgan "citizen control and localism have most often reflected the democratic model of educational governance - in particular the value of accountability - while expert decision making and centralization have reflected the technocratic model and the value of efficiency".

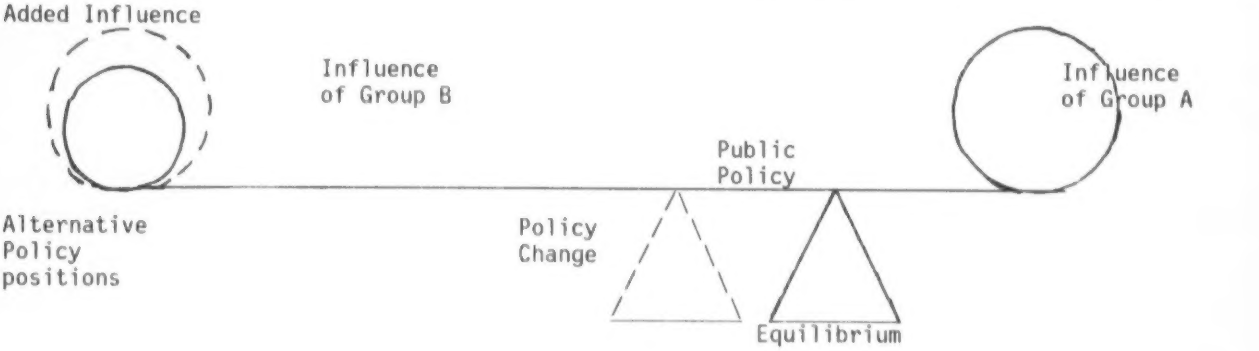

Figure 4-2: Group Theory (Dye, 1972)

Morgan then develops a matrix (see Figure 4-3) to describe policy options.

Although Morgan acknowledges that both technocratic (elites) and democratic (group) approaches should be included in understanding policy development, he argues in favour of a participatory approach to policy making:

> A local emphasis would include two main components: (a) restructuring of decision making to distribute access to more citizens (including those who are effectively disenfranchised), and (b) increasing the role of lay citizens in significant policy decisions. In each case, it is possible to strike a more democratic or more technocratic balance. The latter might include (a) electoral reform to ensure representation of subunits in centralized (e.g., municipal-level) decision making, and (b) the incorporation of subjective client evaluations in assessing personnel performance and in developing budget priorities. The more democratic options would be (a) to devolve significant decision making to submunicipal or neighborhood-school units, and (b) to include lay citizens, teachers, and administrators in decisions regarding curriculum, budget, and personnel.

	Efficiency	Accountability
	"Technocratic"	"Democratic"
Equality	Liberal	Participatory
More public intervention		
Liberty	Neo-Conservative	Romantic
Less public intervention		Conservative

Figure 4-3: A Conception of Policy Options

Common (1985), in an analysis of the use of groups in Ontario Ministry of Education policy-making committees, argues for a more limited use of groups in the committee and decision-making process. Common's conception of policy development procedures leads him to claim that:

- The fewer the steps in the hierarchical clearance sequence, the less likelihood of delay or failure.

- The greater the number of participants (beyond the optimum size of 5-9) on a committee, the less chance of arriving at group agreement.

- There is a probability of committee ineffectiveness when there is an absence of a leader possessing task-related abilities and skills or the presence of a formal leader lacking such leadership skills.

- The greater the number of stakeholding groups with conflicting interests and expectations on the committee, the greater the probability of delay (less effective) in the policy-making process.

- The greater the degree of antipathy or amount of resistance of a stakeholding group to the proposed policy or innovation, the greater the likelihood of delay or failure in the policy-making process.

- The greater the hierarchical differentation in the committee, the less interaction, productivity, and efficiency of the group.

4.2.1.4 Rational Decision-Making Theory

Rational decision-making theory is based on the concept of efficiency which "involves the calculation of all social, political, and economic values sacrificed or achieved by public policy, not just those which can be measured by quantitative symbols" (Dye, 1972). To select a fully rational course of action, policy makers must:

- Know all of the society's value preferences and their relative weights;
- Know all of the policy alternatives available;
- Know all of the consequences of each policy alternative;
- Calculate the ratio of achieved to sacrificed societal values for each policy alternative;
- Select the most efficient policy alternative.

Dye acknowledges that rational decision making, in these terms, is not possible. However, the model is viewed as important for analytic purposes to help understand barriers to rationality. Dye identifies a number of barriers: conflicting values cannot be compared or weighted; all the values cannot be taken into account; the segmentalized nature of policy making in large bureaucracies makes it difficult to co-ordinate all of the various specialists into the decision-making process.

Extending this concept of rationalism and how it is bounded in real world policy making, Hammond (1980) constructs a hierarchy of cognitive processes to describe the decision-making process of policy makers. There are six levels in the hierarchy:

1. Strong analytical experimentation: this level requires systematic manipulation of the variables (e.g., physics experiments in the lab);
2. Moderately strong analytical experimentation (e.g., well-controlled experiments outside the lab);
3. Weak analytical experimentation (e.g., using quasi-experimental designs);
4. Strong quasi-rational judgement: at this level covert judgements become more important than manipulation of variables because the ability to systematically change circumstances is reduced, and there is an inability to disentangle variables, etc.; aids to cognition that can be employed to make the process more rational (i.e., inferential statistics, computer analysis of models, and analyses of judgement and decision) are critically important;

5. Moderately strong quasi-rational thought: the data are delimited but the policy maker must act on data in a passive intuitive way;

6. Weak quasi-rational thought: there is an uncertain data base, an absence of controls, no manipulation of variables, and inconsistent procedures; this is the typical way of making policy.

Hammond argues that it is possible to have policy makers function at level four (even though they confess, on retirement, to working at level six). Policy makers are excessively critical of the decision aids used at level four: these do not have to be perfect - just better than those used at level six.

4.2.1.5 Incrementalism

Incrementalism theory is a response to the asserted "impractical" nature of rational, comprehensive policy making, and offers a more conservative process for decision making (Dye, 1972). It is conservative in the sense that decisions are viewed in relation to existing policies and programs. Incrementalism is adopted because the legitimacy of previous policies tends to be accepted, heavy investments in previous programs cannot be reversed, and because of political expediency. Incrementalism, then, tends to be an appropriate orientation toward change as differences between old and new policies are seen to be marginal.

Schoettle (1968) offers support for incrementalism stemming from his claim that group theory, elite theory, institutionalism, and decision-making theory are all seriously flawed. His conception of incrementalism is based on the work of Braybrooke and Lindholm (1963). Schoettle summarizes this perspective, called "disjointed incrementalism", as follows:

- Choices are made in a given political universe, at the margin of the status quo.
- A restricted variety of policy alternatives is considered, and these alternatives are incremental, or small, changes in the status quo.
- A restricted number of consequences are considered for any given policy.
- Adjustments are made in the objectives of policy in order to conform to given means of policy, implying a reciprocal relationship between ends and means.
- Problems are reconstructed, or transformed, in the course of exploring relevant data.
- Analysis and evaluation occur sequentially, with the result that policy consists of a long chain of amended choices.
- Analysis and evaluation are oriented toward remedying a negatively perceived situation, rather than toward reaching a preconceived goal.

- Analysis and evaluation are undertaken throughout society; that is, the locus of these activities is fragmented or disjointed.

4.2.1.6 Institutionalism

Institutionalism focuses on how political institutions affect policies. Institutions develop and enforce policy, and this model examines that process. One of the problems of this model, however, is that it cannot be divorced from the environment. Social, economic, and political forces can often override attempts to tinker with institutional mechanisms.

4.2.1.7 Other Perspectives

Simeon (1976) and Yeakey (1982) propose classification systems similar, in many respects, to the system proposed by Dye (1972). Simeon begins from a number of problems in policy research. These include the focus on isolated case studies, identifying explanations for dependent variables, and pressures to be politically and socially relevant. He then presents a framework for overcoming the problems of policy development research.

First, he describes three dependent variables in policy research. These include scope, means, and the distributive dimension. *Scope* refers to the range of social issues addressed by the policy. *Means* refers to the instrument or techniques that governments use in order to assure approval or compliance with the policy. The *distributive dimension* focuses on "who gets what" from the policy. These three dependent variables ask: What does government do? How does it do it? and With what effects?

Simeon, then, proceeds to define five independent variables. These include environment, power, ideas, institutional frameworks, and the process of decision making.

- *Environment* refers to such broad characteristics as demography, geography, levels of urbanization, wealth, and industrialization. Simeon argues that environment explains more about the variation in scope.

- The policy will reflect the distribution of power. *Power* can be viewed in terms of a wide variety of interest groups or in terms of the influence of a narrow elite.

- *Ideas* focuses on cultural and ideological factors since policy can be viewed as a function of the dominant ideas, values, theories, and beliefs in the society.

- *Institutions* refers to the policy consequences of institutional structure - the formal rules and regulations of the political system.

- *Process* refers to decision making - both the decision makers and the processes of decision making.

Table 4-1: A Comparison of Simeon's Independent Variables and Dye's Models.

Dye	Simeon
Systems Theory	Environment Ideas
Group Theory Elite Theory	Power
Rationalism Incrementalism	Process
Institutionalism	Institutions

Yeakey (1982) also provides a broad framework for policy analysis:

> Policy is characterized as the culmination of the action and the inaction of the social system in response to demands made on it. Policymaking, far from stochastic, is a deliberate course of action followed by an actor or set of actors relative to an issue or problem.
>
> As such, policy has been regarded as either a dependent or independent variable. As a dependent variable, attention is focused on political and environmental factors, which serve to determine the content of policy. As an independent variable, focus shifts to the impact of policy on the political system and surrounding environs.

Yeakey's analysis is similar to the analyses of Dye and Simeon in arguing for multiple perspectives on policy development. Some of the components she reviews and analyses are:

Decision Making

- Rational comprehensive decision making.
- Bounded rationality (limited rational decision making).
- Incrementalism.
- Mixed scanning which attempts to incorporate the positive aspects of rational decision making and incrementalism.

Policy Analysis

- Political systems theory
- Group theory
- Elite theory
- Functional theory
- Institutionalism

While there is a general match between these categories and those of Dye and Simeon, Yeakey has added the "mixed scanning" concept to decision making and "functionalism" which focuses on the functional activities in the policy process. The functions include such factors as prescription, invocation, application, appraisal, and termination.

Two other analytic schemes were examined in this review although we do not explicitly use them in our subsequent analysis. One scheme reflects a sociological perspective on policy development; the second, an historical perspective.

Steinberger's (1981) perspective is based on the sociology of knowledge. Because people attach meanings to policies, a series of typologies can be used to indicate the dimensions of meaning and the values of these policies. Meaning refers to beliefs about the policy's purpose, impact, and relationship to other policies. Steinberger uses several existing case studies to illustrate the claim that policy disputes are disputes about meaning.

Steinberger argues that typologies should not be seen as alternatives, but that they should be aggregated into a larger model. Steinberger's framework involves five typologies:

- Distributive-redistributive-regulatory;
- Adaptive versus control (in terms of political impact);
- Geographic area versus segmental (scope of impact);
- Public goods versus private goods; and
- Symbolic versus tangible policies.

This perspective suggests several new avenues of inquiry: the ways in which actors assign meanings to policies and disseminate these meanings; a focus on the decision-making process (e.g., Do meanings correlate with political conflict?); and a focus on implementation (e.g., Do implementors develop new meanings or adopt meanings assigned by policy makers?).

In the second scheme, Jones and Matthes (1983) present an historical account of the process of policy making to demonstrate that the process has changed significantly in recent years. They identify four stages in policy development, and then describe how these stages have changed. The stages include:

- Problem identification;
- Priorities setting;
- Formulation of programs; and
- Seeking approval for proposals.

Changes have included a dramatic increase in participation which has created uncertainty in policy making; increased conflict and a longer policy-making process; increased complexity of issues has increased professionalism of government; issues have become nationalized and internationalized; and finally, there is a strong push toward efficiency in government.

4.2.2 Selected Empirical Research

In this section, we review several empirical studies conducted using one or more of the policy development theories reviewed in the previous section. Most of these studies were conducted in Ontario, and were selected as being particularly relevant to the present project.

Nelson and Kleinendorst (n.d.) traced curriculum policy development in Ontario in the 1970s. They used systems theory to describe the environmental inputs of the 1970s including economic recession with no concurrent reduction in demands for government services, a sense of public malaise with government, and a demand for school systems to be more accountable particularly regarding the development of basic skills. The institutions model was used to describe the effects of minority government and the pressures used by the opposition party, and to explain how the legislature influenced the move to core curriculum. The interest group model was employed to explain how groups such as OSSTF attempted to put pressure on the government. To explain how a more conservative elite emerged in the ministry in the late 1970s, elite theory was used. This new group had the responsibility of reshaping public policy in response to the demands of the environment and interest groups.

Nelson and Kleinendorst argued that all or most of the models of policy development were necessary to adequately understand policy development. They gave incrementalism special stature, however:

> It would be fair to state that we are merely arguing for incrementalism. It would also be fair to respond that we have tried to present a rich narrative explaining why incrementalism

> is so likely. We would argue that many jurisdictions in the eighties resemble Ontario. To the extent that this is true, we believe that policy outcomes will follow these same incremental, conservative rules of thumb.

Baker (1985) used the Simeon framework to analyse SERP. For example, in the environment, public attitudes toward education (e.g., need for more job skills training), demographic changes (e.g., high youth unemployment), fiscal relationships between boards (e.g., increasing tension over the credit system, finance, French-language students and concern about quality of course offerings for general level students), and social and technological change (e.g., changes in sex roles) tended to expand the scope of the policy to give it more coherence, breadth, and stability.

Baker argued that with regard to power a key role was exercised by the Minister throughout the process. The HS1 Advisory Committee initially had great power but this was gradually dissipated by the Minister who wanted more public involvement. Members of the non-educator community were very influential in the SERP stage. Power increased the scope of the policy and the means to implement the policy.

Concerning institutional structures, the proposed merger of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Colleges and Universities caused major discontent with the credit system and HS1 to surface, and this motivated the Minister to seek change (Baker, 1985).

With regard to ideas, a consensus began to emerge that HS1 was inappropriate. Other developments included the Curriculum Review, Development, and Implementation (CRDI) cycle and the publication of goals of education during the pre-SERP period which contributed to a changing conception of the function of secondary schools (Baker, 1985).

Concerning decision making, Baker provided an extended chronology of events to show the interaction of the four independent variables. There was influential input throughout from a wide variety of actors. The HS1 Advisory Committee was superceded by SERP because the Minister wanted more public input. There was also recognition that the credit system had problems too broad to be handled by the narrow representativeness of the HS1 committee. Memoranda of key ministry officials demonstrated that tinkering with the system would not do.

Baker (1985) then related these five factors to changes in the policy in terms of the scope, means, and distribution of OSIS.

- Scope: lengthy set of changes increased the scope of the policy. New policy affected students, teachers, MOE, boards, teacher education programs, and the public.

- Means: strategies for ensuring compliance with the policy included early involvement of stakeholders in its development, ample opportunity for feedback at each stage, and the use of regulatory mechanisms (e.g., number of credits, etc.) to achieve pluralistic intentions of policy.

- Distribution: There were increased opportunities for students, especially in basic and general courses; increased retention of students; benefits for teachers (more compulsory courses), but reduced discretion; and increased involvement of the public in educational decision making.

A problem with Baker's study is that the link between independent and dependent variables is not adequately explained. Also, the shift from HS1 to SERP to ROSE to OSIS is not explained since the outcomes are described only in terms of OSIS.

Another Ontario study took an elite theory perspective on policy development. Stapleton (1977) studied the development of the credit system in Ontario. He found that development of this policy involved a struggle between the Curriculum Branch and the Supervision Branch in the Ministry of Education. The policy making committee within the ministry was so consumed with conflict that it ignored input from interest groups. According to Stapleton, the conflict was resolved when the head of the Supervision Branch resigned from the committee, because the curriculum view of the HS1 Advisory Committee was supported by the deputy minister. Stapleton argues that the elite believed that political decisions should not involve teachers and principals. The ensuing controversy about the credit system may have led to a change in norms which were included in the SERP process.

Group interest theory was used by Duhamel and Cyze (1985) in their review of Ministry of Education policies in various provinces in Canada. They saw a tension between local group interests and centralized decision making. They found elites influencing decisions in financing, teacher bargaining, and curriculum in provinces such as Quebec and British Columbia. At the same time decentralization had occurred with regard to budgeting and administration in Saskatchewan, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec, and Alberta.

Duane, Townsend, and Bridgeland (1985) carried out a comparative case study of how interest groups affected policy development in Ontario and Michigan. The sample included 40 members of the educational elite in Ontario and 40 in Michigan who participated in a structured interview. The authors found that labour in Ontario is very powerful, particularly OSSTF (on economic issues) and FWTAO (on social issues). They also found that the Association of Large School Boards is the most powerful trustee group, while the Ontario Public School Trustees Association is powerful in financial matters. According to the authors, special interest groups (e.g., francophone coalitions and separate school groups) can be very powerful in Ontario. Duane, Townsend, and Bridgeland portray an image of a province where various groups have a powerful influence on educational decision making in a number of different areas.

Weiss and Gruber (1984) conducted a case study of decision making within local education districts in the U.S. They attempted to determine how five different information systems affect federal control over schools. Control was achieved through four strategies, each of which could be strengthened by the availability of knowledge:

- Persuasion (e.g., providing data on preferred courses of action);
- Manipulating benefits (e.g., knowing what regards will influence the target behaviour);
- Manipulating costs (e.g., knowing what penalties will influence the target);
- Authority (e.g., knowing who to command in order to achieve controller's objectives).

Weiss and Gruber (1984) found that with regard to manipulating benefits the information system demands constrained the behaviour of school districts in some ways (e.g., which children should receive special programming), but not in others (e.g., did not affect instructional priorities). Concerning the manipulation of costs, the information system helped federal agencies target distribution of penalties and administer sanctions more efficiently. Weiss and Gruber cited many examples of persuasion where the availability of information from federal systems had a direct and indirect effect on actors at many different levels. However, the knowledge was often used by these actors to successfully oppose the federal government's intentions. They concluded that knowledge does influence control, but the same bodies of knowledge can be used by many actors in ways not intended by the agency which wished to exercise control.

4.2.3 Conclusion

Some of the empirical studies we reviewed suffered from methodological problems. In many cases, the methodologies were not clearly described making it difficult to assess the internal validity of the studies. When inferences were made, it was difficult to assess the basis of the inferences. Even without the methodological difficulties, it would be hard to identify clear trends or draw many firm conclusions from this literature.

Although the frameworks provided by Dye (1972) and Simeon (1976) are helpful, there seem to have been few theoretical or empirical "breakthroughs" since these frameworks were developed in the mid-seventies. One problem, even with the Dye model, is that the six perspectives are laid out, side by side, and there is no attempt to examine the relationship among the models. For example, one could cluster the models in terms of polarities.

Pluralist	Efficiency
Systems Theory	Institutionalism
Group Theory	Elite Theory
Incrementalism	Rationalism

Since elites are usually found within government and corporate bureaucracies, elite theory usually accompanies the institutional model. Since elites may sometimes have the luxury of surveying a variety of alternatives and placing these alternatives in some framework, rationalism, at least, has the opportunity to arise in this polarity. Even if elites do not always have this perspective, they can use the rationalist model to examine barriers to decision making.

Conversely, group theory and systems theory seem to be related. Systems theory attempts to incorporate or monitor the environment which may include the opinions of various interest groups. In this polarity, to balance the interests of various groups, it is more likely that changes will result from compromise among the groups and that change will be incremental. Only in the case where one interest group clearly predominates could change assume a more rationalist perspective.

Given these polarities, it might be possible to identify an underlying theme with regard to each of the polarities. The system-group-incrementalist perspective is, in part, characterized by pluralism and different value perspectives associated with the various interest groups. Indeed, Dye refers to the systems position as pluralistic (1972). Group theory, by definition, is also pluralistic.

The institutions-elite-rationalism polarity is characterized by the search for efficiency, more specifically, for bureaucratic efficiency. Although elites can sometimes conflict, these conflicts are often overriden by the needs of the bureaucracy to maintain a steady course.

Stapleton (1977) speculated that the HS1 Advisory Committee was an elite-based approach which ran into difficulties. Those problems, then, led to a more interest group oriented (pluralist) approach in the SERP-ROSE-OSIS project.

It should be noted, however, that researchers with the exception of a few (e.g., Nelson and Kleinendorst, n.d.), have tended not to build on the research and theory developed by others. Thus, the research is fairly disparate. Even those researchers who have built on the work of others, such as Dye, have not begun to identify the conditions under which particular constellations of models might be most appropriate as analytic tools. Some questions which might be asked are: Are there some types of policy issues that are especially likely to be influenced by the interaction of interest groups? Are there some types of policy environments which are likely to produce policies incrementally?

This study of OSIS attempted to overcome some of these problems identified in the literature. It was partly built on the Dye-Nelson-Simeon framework and attempts to show how the various models (e.g., elite, group theory, etc.) explain the development of OSIS as educational policy.

4.3 A THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE ON OSIS DEVELOPMENT

The preceding chapters have reviewed the results of the investigation into the development of the OSIS policy. In this section, the results will be analysed in terms of the theoretical perspectives, presented in section 4.2, on policy development. The discussion opens with a description of the policy defined narrowly as changes to Circular HS1 as evidenced in Circular OSIS (Appendix S). These changes will be related to the six perspectives in order to make judgements about the relative influence of each set of factors on the policy that emerged. This analysis will then be revised by expanding the definition of the policy to include documents and statements in addition to those found in Circular OSIS. The final section identifies the implications of the analysis for understanding educational policy development in Ontario and the implications for the policy formation activities of the Ministry of Education.

4.3.1 A Narrow Definition of the Policy

Initially we shall define the policy narrowly. In this section we are concerned with changes that occurred in the Ministry of Education curriculum circular which governs the operation of secondary schools in the province. The two documents which are compared in this analysis are Circular HS1 (1979-81) and Circular OSIS (1984).

Following Simeon (1976) the dimensions of change will be arranged in terms of scope (the goals of the policy), redistribution (the effect of the policy on resource allocation), and means (the mechanisms through which the policy will attain its ends).

These dimensions of policy change are summarized in Table 4-2. Much of Circular OSIS is a verbatim reiteration or minor amplification of Circular HS1 (Appendix S). The changes that were made were relatively few in number but they had significant implications for school operation.

4.3.1.1 Scope

OSIS claims that it maintains the same curriculum priorities as HS1 with two exceptions. The first is that it has the added task of "the preparation of young people to enter the world of work equipped with the attitudes and skills that will make them productive and successful" (Appendix S).

This is a modest shift: HS1 is also concerned with the world of work. OSIS simply is more careful to remind readers of the importance of this relationship and more explicit about how it is to be achieved; for example, in discussing guidelines and courses OSIS makes a number of references to the need for work-oriented skills programs. Other sections of OSIS that stress the importance of work world relations are identical to material in HS1, for example, the discussion of co-operative education, including the importance of advisory committees is virtually unchanged.

The second area in which OSIS claims it has taken on a new curriculum priority is "the need for schools to work along with parents to nurture students through the adolescent years" (Appendix S).

Table 4-2: Changes in Secondary School Policy, HS1 to OSIS

Scope

- A greater concern for the relationship between the school and the workplace;
- A greater concern for the nurturing of students;
- An expanded concept of sex equity.

Redistribution

- A shift in school attention to the needs of the non-university-bound student;
- Greater concern for the needs of cultural and linguistic minorities;
- A shift in compulsory courses.

Means

- The rules for graduation became tougher;
- There are differences in prescriptiveness.

This again is a matter of degree. OSIS expresses this concern to nurture students in a number of ways (e.g., students should each have a teacher advisor and a home room; the importance of regular attendance should be stressed to students and teachers; etc.). But these elements are also called for in HS1. What is different is that OSIS requires schools to spell out how they are going to achieve this through a student behaviour code that promotes self-discipline and through the provision of guidance services in Grades 7 and 8 as well as Grades 9 to 12.

The policy's concept of sex equity is expanded. In HS1 sex equity is a clear goal. It is defined in terms of equal access of both sexes to all courses. In OSIS the concern for sex equity is maintained in terms of equal access, and expanded to include the avoidance of sex role stereotyping in courses, programs, and curriculum materials. It is further stated that there should be balanced treatment of women in learning materials.

4.3.1.2 Redistribution

OSIS shifts school attention toward the needs of the non-university-bound student by spelling out in greater detail the needs of the student planning to enter community college or the work world on graduation. For example, the discussion of general and basic levels is much more extensive than the parallel sections of HS1. There is a new attempt to develop work-oriented skills programs "particularly for those who do not plan to pursue post-secondary education" (Appendix S). There is also a new Certificate of Education for students leaving school with fourteen credits.

In the section on developing individual school programs there are many more references to the needs of the work-bound student than in the parallel section of HS1. There is also an attempt to link secondary school courses to apprenticeship programs. Finally, there is special concern for the needs of the returning student. The school should be flexible in offering short courses, in providing entry at different times in the year, and in preparing teachers to meet the unique needs of re-entry students.

There is little that is new for the university-bound student. There is a new opportunity for fast-tracking: a student might complete thirty credits, including OACs, in four years, mainly because the number of credits for the equivalent of the old SSHGD (Grade 13 graduation) has been reduced from thirty-three. This is not as great a change as it may appear. HS1 enabled gifted students to complete programs in shorter periods, and the policy did not prevent students from proceeding directly to the SSHGD without completing the SSGD (Grade 12 graduation). Also for the university-bound student there is a reference to the linking of secondary school and university courses, but this is described as being in the pilot stage and is not spelled out in any detail.

There is greater concern in OSIS for the needs of cultural and linguistic minorities. There is a new Heritage Language Program in Grades 7 and 8. There is also provision for students to take up to three English credits through English as a second language/dialect courses, one of which may be at the senior level. HS1 is silent on this issue. All appropriate courses are to include new material on multiculturalism.

There are also many references to attending to the needs of exceptional students, although there appear to be no substantive changes from HS1, except for the possibility of specialized schools in the performing arts.

The English version of OSIS does not indicate that students in English- and French-language instructional units are to be treated on a equivalent basis with regard to language credits. It must be assumed that the French version of OSIS spells out the language requirements for French-language instructional units.

In OSIS the number of compulsory courses increases. But there are winners and losers, in terms of teacher jobs. In English-language instructional units, the number of English credits required increases by one and the number of French credits by one. This substantially tilts compulsory attendance toward the area defined in HS1 as the communications area of study. In terms of the other curriculum areas of study described in HS1, the social and environmental studies area is basically unchanged; the pure and applied sciences area has increased by two (credits in science and business education); and the arts area drops from three required courses in the area of studies to two compulsory credits in specific subjects (the arts and physical education) (see Appendix S). The main effect is to reduce the array of options for students, especially in Grades 9 and 10.

4.3.1.3 Means

The rules for graduation are tougher in OSIS. More courses are required for graduation: thirty instead of twenty-seven. On the other hand the university-bound student can reduce the demands from thirty-three to thirty. More of these courses are compulsory: sixteen instead of nine and the shift is toward "harder" courses such as languages and science.

There are differences in prescriptiveness. In general OSIS is more prescriptive. For example, the minimum amount of time to be devoted to each subject in Grades 7 and 8 is specified. In the secondary grades, there is less flexibility in terms of fractional credits: only 30-hour modules are described. There are to be only three levels of courses as opposed to six, and there are to be no open level courses. Only percentage grades are permitted in OSIS, whereas HS1 also allowed letter grades. OSIS also calls for a standard student transcript, provides common course codes to be used throughout the province, and identifies items that must be included in school calendars.

4.3.2 OSIS Development Viewed Through Six Perspectives on Policy Development

4.3.2.1 Systems Theory - Environment

This perspective attributes policy development to pressure from the environment to which the political system must respond. The construct is a pivotal component in the political systems model of Easton (1965) and in Dye's (1972) systems theory. Simeon (1976) has a closely related construct (the environment), but he limits this to broad characteristics such as demography. Simeon constructs a separate category (ideas) consisting of dominant ideas, values, and beliefs in society that might affect policy. In our account, the construct "environment" includes ideas as well as gross variables such as demography.

There is ample evidence that the environment had a large impact on the development of OSIS.

OSIS expressed increased concern for the relationship between the school and the world of work. This concern is visible in the environment prior to the policy development activities related to SERP and OSIS. For example, a series of articles appeared in the press concerning the unsuitability of the schools' methods for preparing students for work. The OISE surveys in 1978 (Livingstone, 1978) and 1979 (Livingstone and Hart, 1979) indicated that the public assigned preparation for work the highest curriculum priority. Half the respondents in the 1979 survey attributed youth unemployment to deficiencies of the school system and called for schools to focus on this problem.

110

The emphasis in OSIS on nurturing students can be seen as a reflection of the environment. For example, the 1980 OISE survey (Livingstone and Hart, 1980) reported public demands for more career counselling. Newspapers of the day reported public concern with the student drop-out rate. Contemporary research reports linked drop-outs to school practices. King (1980) reported that school retention rates declined with the adoption of the credit system; Warren and King (1979) attributed drop-outs to student dissatisfaction with school. Newspapers also reflected anxiety about vandalism. National surveys from 1954 to 1979 showed an increased concern with student discipline: the public wanted less permissiveness, but did not want to go back to an earlier era of school authoritarian codes.

Expansion by OSIS of the policy's concept of sex equity can be linked to environmental pressures. Newspaper articles of the time identified sex stereotyping in school textbooks as a problem. The 1980 OISE survey (Livingstone and Hart, 1980) indicated that a majority of the public supported increased access of women to male-dominated fields and expected that the school would provide the training that would make this possible.

The interest of OSIS in the needs of cultural and linguistic minorities can be seen as a response to changes in patterns of immigration and in beliefs about multiculturalism. Throughout the 1970s immigration to Canada shifted toward members of visible minorities. At the same time assimilationist beliefs were in decline, and pluralist conceptions were in ascendency.

There is less evidence for claiming that conditions in the environment stimulated a change in mandatory courses. The shift toward one compulsory credit in the second language and several compulsory credits in the primary instructional language can be attributed to the fact that support for bilingualism was at its height in Ontario, as evidenced by increasing enrolments in French immersion programs. To the extent that the change increased emphasis on "harder" subjects, it can be attributed to public concerns about standards.

OSIS tightened up graduation standards. This is easily linked to public concerns. In the 1979 and 1980 OISE surveys (Livingstone and Hart, 1979, 1980), poor academic standards were the second most important curriculum priority identified by the public. Newspapers contained articles reflecting comparable anxiety.

There were also some environmental preferences that are not reflected in OSIS. A majority of the public wanted streaming into vocational tracks by the end of Grade 10 (Livingstone and Hart, 1980) but this was resisted by OSIS. Similarly the Council of Ontario Universities wanted to increase the core component of advanced level courses as early as Grade 9, a change that was also resisted. Newspapers reported concern with secondary school responses to students with special needs, and the public was supportive of special programs for slow learners and the handicapped but OSIS broke no ground in this area. The public also wanted less centralized educational decision making with more input for parents (Livingstone and Hart, 1979, 1980), yet OSIS made no initiatives in response, except in the call for the involvement of parents on committees to develop a code of student behaviour.

The overall pattern is very clear. Public beliefs, ideas, and preferences dominant in the environment during and prior to the development of OSIS are visible in each dimension of policy change.

4.3.2.2 Institutionalism - Political Organization

Both Dye (1972) and Simeon (1976) suggest that political structures, rules, and organizations can have a powerful influence on policy formation. In this case the influence exercised by political institutions was minimal, with one major exception.

In the broadest sense, one can see that those elements of the policy which were concerned with equalizing access to educational opportunities were congruent with long-standing government policy in other fields. For example, regional government was advocated a decade earlier as a mechanism for redressing rural/urban disparities. Similarly the provision of special services to the northern part of the province, and the availability of various compensatory programs for economically-disadvantaged regions was part of the same thrust. But this broad policy platform was not unique to the party in power: it was shared by all parties in the House. They differed only in degree and the means through which equality of access could be achieved.

Although there were suggestions at the time that debates in the legislature stimulated the policy development process, the closest observers discount the notion that SERP was an attempt to deflect opposition criticisms. It is noteworthy that the political affiliations of those appointed to the SERP committees were unknown to those who made the appointments, and no attempt was made to get balanced representation.

There is very little indication that the rules and structures of government influenced policy development. Baker (1985) reported that the proposed merger of the Ministries of Education and Colleges and Universities brought to the surface discontent with policy development processes related to secondary schools that might have played a minor role in stimulating interest in secondary school reform. Similarly, the internal reorganization of the Curriculum Development Division, which separated senior education from elementary education, and combined it with continuing education, as well as the failure to complete a satisfactory review of the intermediate division, was seen as having played a minor role in encouraging the minister to include a review of both the intermediate and senior divisions in the objectives of SERP.

In contrast, the Minister of Education exercised a pervasive influence. On substantive matters, her main concern was that the needs of the non-university-bound student be addressed: the policy certainly did so. On other issues she reflected the concerns of the public. She saw herself as the defender of these interests, and her role can be viewed as one of the principal means through which environmental preferences were activated. For example, as chairperson of the Council of Ministers of Education (Canada), she became aware that other provinces were planning to review their secondary schools or had recently completed reviews.

The Minister played a pivotal role in selecting the process used to develop the policy. She decided to set up SERP rather than continue with the HS1 Advisory Committee because this group was not representative of a broad range of educational stakeholders and, she believed, was incapable of responding to public calls for substantial reform. She chose not to establish a royal commission because it would take too long, be too costly, could deviate from its mandate, and might produce recommendations that could not be implemented. The Minister encouraged the team that developed the SERP proposal, sold it to cabinet, selected members of the Steering Committee and approved members of other committees, and gave key officers of SERP direct access to herself and to senior ministry officials.

In summary, political institutions had an influence on OSIS almost exclusively through the Minister. This influence was exercised mainly with respect to the process of policy development, ensuring that a wide variety of groups were given a voice.

4.3.2.3 Social Interests - Group Theory

The special interest groups perspective views policy development as a process of negotiation among groups with a stake in the policy. In this case there is considerable evidence of the influence of special interests but on balance they tended to cancel each other out because participation in the process was so broad.

Separate school supporters, as an interest group, focused their efforts on the extension of funding beyond Grade 10. The silence of OSIS on this question suggests this group had little influence.

Business and industry had a substantial impact. Their concerns for the relationship between the school and the world of work, and their interest in the needs of the non-university-bound student, were fulfilled by the policy. Their concerns with strengthening standards for graduation and their anxieties around student discipline were also addressed by OSIS. Although the business community submitted relatively few briefs there was an active attempt to seek out their views and respond to their preferences. For example, the SERP committees debated whether job preparation should emphasize specific job skills or generic work/life skills; industry input in favour of the latter tipped the balance. Business and industry successfully resisted pressure from some sources that they provide more financial support for apprenticeship programs based on European models.

Community colleges had a major influence when their interests were aligned with those of business. The commitment of OSIS to the needs of the non-university-bound student and the emphasis on job preparation are two areas in which this combined influence was felt. Subgroups within the colleges and business were also aligned in pushing for a shift in the fundamental curriculum orientation of secondary schools. Here they were less successful.

A brief digression on this last point. Curriculum documents differ in the fundamental beliefs implicit in them about such issues as the nature of the learning process, the needs of children, and the purpose of schooling. Miller (1983) has grouped these educational beliefs into a set of major categories or orientations. The most frequently encountered are the transmission orientation, (an emphasis on the rote recall of information and basic skills), and the transaction orientation, (an emphasis on the development of the self-directed problem solver who is able to apply simple and complex knowledge and skill to the solution of important problems in school and in everyday life).

Circula HS1, the precursor to Circular OSIS, was a transactional document with transmission elements. Circular OSIS is much the same. Circular OSIS urges schools "to help students avoid rote learning" (OSIS, p. 7). In describing programs designed for the non-university-bound student, Circular OSIS states that the "general level courses should put more emphasis on the applied elements" which are defined as

> ... the development of procedural, manipulative and problem-solving skills using the theory associated with the discipline or subject field. Objectives of this type should also include some understanding of how the knowledge and skills associated with the subject can be applied in various occupations (OSIS, p. 21).

OSIS stresses that all students should address a range of objectives derived from the thirteen Goals of Education. These goals demand that schools place more emphasis on transaction than on transmission. In adopting this stance OSIS rejected pressures from an alliance of subgroups, disproportionately drawn from community colleges, business, and industry. This alliance tried to link a concern for the non-university-bound student and interest in providing job preparation skills toward a more transmissional curriculum.

Universities had relatively little influence on introducing change in the policy. They had called for standard university entrance exams and reductions in curriculum choices available to individual secondary schools. Some university spokespersons wanted the advanced program to be identified as early as Grade 9 with little opportunity to change levels thereafter. They wanted secondary school transcripts to indicate where each credit was taken because they were concerned with mark inflation and reduced hours of instruction in night school and summer programs. None of these preferences were included in OSIS.

Universities did have influence in one area: advanced level courses (OAC) at the Grade 13 level were reinstated in OSIS, after SERP had proposed their deletion through compression of the curriculum into four years. This change reintroduced the option of a fifth year of secondary school, and was made partly out of fear that universities would add, at greater expense, another year to the first undergraduate degree. However, on the whole, the universities had minimal influence.

The teacher federations tended to have relatively little distinct influence on the policy, although there were some successes. The FWTAO resisted the compression of the secondary curriculum downward into Grades 7 and 8 (in order to facilitate the removal of Grade 13) because of the demands this would place on elementary teachers: OSIS changed the SERP recommendation through introducing OACs and rearranging the curriculum within Grades 9 through 12. The FWTAO was also successful in replacing the highly prescriptive time allocations for Grade 7 and 8 subjects with minimum time allotments for subject areas. Both FWTAO and OSSTF called for the elimination of sexism in curriculum materials, and this demand was met by OSIS.

The OSSTF was able to make some changes during the policy deliberations. A SERP recommendation calling for the participation of students in the planning and evaluation of the school program, and its delivery was interpreted as calling for the evaluation of teachers by students. This recommendation was diffused by passing it on to schools and school boards for their further consideration. Another recommendation requiring teachers to provide evidence of professional development to maintain certification was considerably softened.

In other areas the OSSTF was less successful. They called for a series of reforms of the credit system (e.g. a new definition of a credit, core curriculum, and many others). Almost none of these, except the call for greater attention to student work habits which enjoyed broad support, were adopted by OSIS. OSSTF members, in a 1976 survey conducted by the organization, wanted greater participation in curriculum decision making for teachers, but OSIS did not respond. Some of the leaders of OSSTF wanted to assemble packages of general level courses for non-university-bound students, but such pressures toward streaming were rejected by OSIS. The lack of influence of teachers is further indicated by the makeup of the SERP committees. In the original design, as outlined in the cabinet submission, teachers were not represented on any of the committees. The President of OSSTF was included on the Steering Committee but was told that committee members were expected to represent their personal views and not those of their constituency. Later one teacher was added to the Evaluation Committee, a structure with less influence. The OSSTF ultimately opposed the 30-credit diploma with sixteen compulsory credits.

Subject groups attempted to influence the policy, with little apparent effect. A notable exception was the letter writing campaign organized by the music teachers in response to the recommendation appearing in the SERP Discussion Paper that the external credit for music be discontinued. In the final report this credit was reinstated.

The headmasters' association (OSSHC) also had little impact on OSIS. The decision to develop the policy through SERP, rather than through the HS1 Advisory Committee, demonstrates this. The HS1 Advisory Committee had been dominated by secondary principals, yet they were not represented on the SERP committee structure in its initial design. One of the headmasters' spokespersons indicated that the principals did not want SERP; they were content with the gradual modifications being made by the HS1 Advisory Committee. It was reported, for example, that a majority of the principals did not want to increase the number of credits required for graduation. They wanted to retain open level courses, a practice that was eliminated by OSIS. Some principals wanted to retain the flexibility they had achieved in terms of the number of compulsory credits and the definition of a credit. Ryan (1980) reported that up to forty schools might have been deviating from ministry policy prior to the development of OSIS. The new policy banned practices that had been legitimized de facto.

Many principals shared concerns about the non-university-bound student, the need for improved student discipline, and the other dimensions along which the policy on secondary school operation changed. Other principals did not. When the headmasters adopted positions that lacked widespread support in the environment they had virtually no impact.

At first glance it would appear that Franco-Ontarians, as a special interest group, had relatively little influence. They were not represented on the SERP secretariat in the original design. They were not able to get OSIS to address their demand for unilingual French schools, a highly controversial topic at the time. In the early 1980s, the newspapers were full of stories about the conflict at Penetanguishene and the lack of equal educational opportunity for francophone students. Franco-Ontarians did not get equality in compulsory courses in the ministry's initial response to SERP as described in the ROSE Report: English-speaking students were required to take only one French course but French-speaking students were required to complete four credits in anglais and one in français.

A second look produces a very different picture, one showing that the Franco-Ontarian interest group exercised significant influence. The original design of the SERP committees was quickly changed to add one French-speaking education officer to the secretariat.

The fact that OSIS did not address the call for unilingual schools need not be listed as a failure. The outcome would probably have been negative if the policy had addressed it since only 15 per cent of the public supported unilingual French schools, according to the 1980 OISE survey (Livingstone and Hart, 1980).

One French-speaking educator suggested that the Franco-Ontarian community got what it wanted in OSIS. The requirement that French-speaking students take four credits in anglais was meaningless because they understood the need to be bilingual, and would take the courses whether they were compulsory or not. The pressure for studies in anglais came from English-speaking ministry and government officials. The main achievement was making studies in français compulsory and equivalent in status to studies in English in majority language schools. Further, Franco-Ontarians did not care whether English-language instructional units made second language courses in French compulsory, and were content to let the English-speaking community decide this. The only negative aspect of OSIS for French-speaking students was that, with the addition of the compulsory language credits (five in français and one in anglais), students were left with less course choice than English-speaking students enjoyed.

Multicultural interests were recognized as a distinct group in selecting SERP committee memberships. The inclusion in OSIS of the heritage language program and the acceptance of English as a second language/dialect courses as fulfilment of compulsory English requirements demonstrates their influence. The first draft of OSIS gave students enrolled in ESL courses exemptions from the mandatory French requirement, but this was removed in later drafts.

Organizations supporting students with special learning needs did not receive much attention in the development of OSIS. Their attempts to raise issues were directed to another policy group simultaneously addressing these concerns in Bill 82. This group neither gained nor lost with OSIS.

The relatively weak influence of special interest groups on policy formation in this case can be attributed to several factors.

The selection process for SERP committees played a significant role in reducing the impact of special interests. The committees were constructed to be broadly representative of the major stakeholders, thereby diffusing the influence of any one group. Positions that were perceived by other groups as self-interested were quickly discounted; for example, the opposition of the OSSTF to the elimination of Grade 13 was interpreted by other groups as an attempt to protect teacher jobs. Those making the committee appointments consciously sought committee members who were capable of thinking independently of their organizations. Committee members selected were told to represent themselves not their interest groups: they tended to do so. Even the Steering Committee member appointed as a direct result of the pressure from Franco-Ontarian associations was very concerned that he not be seen as their representative.

Procedures adopted by the policy-making bodies further reduced the influence of special interest groups. Committee members were told to keep SERP deliberations confidential. This reduced members' ability to confer with their constituencies, although they did keep their groups informed of general progress but not about the detailed decisions. Equally important, the decision-making processes used in the SERP committees called regularly on committee members to express their views, which were viewed as being representative of all program stakeholders. In addition, there were elaborate procedures for obtaining feedback on each of the reports that were issued and made public.

Special interest groups were also kept at bay by the Minister and by members of the bureaucratic elite. The Minister was aware of the strategy used by some groups of waiting until very near to the approval stage before making new demands of the policy, and was concerned at the chipping away of key policy proposals that could result from these tactics.

Where interest groups were able to form alliances with pressure groups within the ministry, particularly on issues that were compatible with environmental preferences, they were able to influence the policy (e.g., the pressure to focus attention on the needs of the non-university-bound student and the changes in time allotments for Grades 7 and 8). To a lesser degree, the Franco-Ontarian community also had an impact. Their influence emerged from a juxtaposition of a tightly interlocking network of associations, a visible grievance (under-representation on the SERP secretariat), a history of unequal treatment, and clearly formulated goals.

4.3.2.4 Elite Theory - The Bureaucracy

Bureaucratic elites influence policy through a shared set of values relevant to the substance of the policy, and through a commitment to the established procedures for operating the system. This includes a commitment to the continuation of existing operations in a form not radically different from its pre-policy condition.

The bureaucratic elite had a very powerful impact on the development of OSIS, even though the process for developing this policy had been designed in part to reduce their influence. Senior officials of the Ministry of Education shared the environmental preferences that are visible in the dimensions of policy change described above.

The distinctive thrust of the bureaucratic elite was in the means dimension. Between SERP and OSIS the number of compulsory courses increased from fourteen to sixteen. The additions were "harder" subjects making the rules for graduation tougher. The bureaucratic elite were especially concerned with the standardization of procedures. They pressed, successfully, for less flexibility in the interpretation of the credit system on the part of individual schools. They eliminated fractional credits in favour of 30-hour modules; that is, the only fraction allowed by OSIS was the quarter credit.

The main influence of the bureaucratic elite was to keep items out of OSIS. Their influence was toward the status quo. They were aware, for example, of calls for a more transmissional curriculum. A highly transactional set of goals describing the purpose of education in Ontario had been developed by ministry officials prior to the start of SERP. These were incorporated into OSIS along with other statements, thereby discounting attempts to reduce the curriculum to basic literacy and numeracy. They opposed attempts to re-establish packaged school organizations, such as the Robarts plan, that would stream students into irrevocable career paths. Between SERP and OSIS the elite were able to save the option of five years in high school; the rationale was that the ministry lacked the resources to do the compacting of courses that would be required if Grade 13 were eliminated.

The structures and functions of SERP were determined by the bureaucratic elite. The original proposal called for a more integrative relationship of the Steering Committee with the other committees. The process became more linear as it emerged over time under the guidance of the SERP secretariat. While these changes were acceptable to the SERP committee members, they had the effect of giving the secretariat, which was composed of members of the bureaucratic elite, more control over the process since all the linkages among committees became the responsibility of secretariat members, particularly the chairman.

Further, the inability of the Design Committee to understand how and why certain decisions had been made by other committees, and the strictures placed on its activities by its terms of reference, reduced the influence of this committee, which was composed entirely of practising educators - those who, in the opinion of the Minister, could be depended on to give practical advice on how to implement the project's recommendations.

Ministry officials had access to the minutes of all SERP committee meetings and remained in contact with the chairman. Among the various reasons for keeping SERP within the ministry, the most prominent were the need to provide the committees with essential background data - the ministry provided information and resource personnel on request - and the desire to keep SERP within the bounds of its mandate. However, all members of the SERP committees agreed that the Minister and deputy minister did not interfere in the deliberations of SERP. It seems quite apparent that the influence of the elite was vested in the secretariat during SERP, and then returned to the regular bureaucratic elite of the ministry after SERP.

In meetings of the Steering Committee members of the secretariat deflected proposals they did not approve of by simply not providing them with the support, encouragement, and massaging required to make them agreeable to other committee members. In some instances the secretariat pushed suggestions to the periphery by identifying implementation problems that would ensue if the unfavoured proposal was included in the policy.

In summary the bureaucratic elite exercised substantial influence on the policy. Their influence arose through their control of the processes. Its effect was to maintain the environmental preferences the elite shared; to make small, but significant changes, in the means of the policy, and to ensure that those policy proposals which would be difficult to implement were modified.

4.3.2.5 Rational Decision Making

Economic rationalism is an approach to decision making that maximizes rational processes. There is a search for perfect information which can be used to assess a definitive set of alternatives by an optimal set of criteria. Such an approach to decision making can only be approximated in real world contexts. When it is attempted, it can have an effect on policy.

There is evidence indicating that some actors were guided by rationalism which had an effect on some aspects of the policy, mainly in terms of reducing the influence of special interest groups and maintaining environmental preferences.

The initial posture of the SERP committees, as intended by the chairman, was to engage in an open-ended search for issues, concerns, data and solutions. Out of this divergent process arose a large set of issues which served as the agenda for subsequent deliberations. The Assessment Report included as close to a definitive set of issues as could be identified. Subsequent treatment of each issue was increasingly convergent.

Existing data were entered into a framework which defined the issue, described the context in which it appeared, and suggested alternative directions for resolving it. If there was insufficient information to proceed toward a resolution, other organizations, particularly the Ministry of Education, were directed to supply it. Submissions were invited from the public and from all special interest groups. For one issue, a special study was commissioned when other sources could not supply what was required. Decision making on this issue was delayed until the research study was completed. Information was provided to SERP committee members, usually in advance of the meetings, and served as input to the deliberations.

The decision making of SERP committees followed the framework established by the chairman. His memos to committee members presented an issue, described alternatives, and explicitly outlined the strengths and weaknesses of each. Most committee meetings were spent considering specific directions or recommendations. The committees often divided into small groups to promote efficiency. Decisions were reached through consensus after extensive debate. Once the first set of recommendations were developed in the Assessment Report, which tried to be all inclusive, subsequent reports of SERP committees addressed the same set of issues in the same order and format. Reasons for accepting or rejecting each of the original recommendations were provided in the final report.

The rationalist approach operative during the SERP process continued, in part, through the period culminating in OSIS. Contentious issues, such as the number of credits required for graduation, were presented to senior officials in the ministry and to special interest groups as a matrix of options and criteria. Internal ministry meetings to consider SERP were organized to bring benefits and concerns of various key recommendations to the surface. The rationalist approach ultimately embraced issues left out of OSIS: senior ministry officials called for systematic examinations of policy options with respect to separate school funding and province-wide testing, among others.

The effect of rationalist influences was to favour proposals that had broad support, and to ensure that all voices were heard. In the policy-making marathon, proposals contrary to environmental preferences eventually fell away. Scrutiny was so open and pervasive that special interests could not slip in their own alternatives, nor could they bury the input of the less vocal.

4.3.2.6 Incrementalism

The opposite pole to the rationalist approach to decision making is incrementalism: the search for a limited body of information to assess available alternatives using a small set of criteria. It is the quest for satisfying, rather than optimal solutions. The policy outcomes of incremental decision making are small changes in existing practices.

There is some evidence of incrementalism during the deliberations of SERP committees. Each committee tended to support what its predecessors had recommended. Where changes in recommendations were made they tended to modify impulses toward reform, and bring the recommendation closer to existing practice. For example, the Reaction Committee effectively eliminated the recommendation for diplomas differentiated by level, thus returning the policy to the status quo. In OSIS, diplomas may be differentiated if a student has taken more than eight credits in a single area of study such as business or technology.

After SERP, incrementalist pressures increased. The ROSE Report discarded the rationalist framework followed by the various SERP reports and did not fully address all the issues raised in previous documents. It explicitly endorsed about 20 per cent of the SERP recommendations, accepted in modified form another 40 per cent, ignored or rejected several, set others aside for further study, and referred the remainder to other branches and divisions of the Ministry of Education, to other ministries, and to schools boards or schools for their consideration.

The ROSE Report was selective, stressing issues about which it could be decisive, typically defending existing ministry practices. The ROSE Report was more integrative than previous reports. For example, it treated approximately thirty SERP recommendations concerned with curriculum guidelines by outlining a single plan for guideline revision and development. In the ROSE Report there was an unspoken separation of recommendations that could be incorporated into the curriculum circular governing secondary school operation and recommendations that addressed issues for which the solutions lay partially outside the school system or required other kinds of action, for example, at the provincial rather than the school or board levels.

With the appearance of OSIS, further indications of incrementalism became visible. The SERP recommendation to abolish Grade 13 was replaced by the introduction of OACs and the possibility of fast-tracking some students by making the six OACs required for university entrance part of the thirty credits required for a secondary graduation diploma. This modification dramatically reduced the extent of guideline and course revisions that would have been required to compact the curriculum.

The minimum time to be allocated to French as a Second Language in Grades 7 and 8 was reduced from 12 to 6 per cent. This step was taken to reduce the number of schools which would have to change their timetables from sixty-two to one. Concern about staffing motivated the modification. Other changes occurred to reduce the impact of secondary school curriculum changes on Grade 7 and 8 classes.

In summary, incrementalism was operative, particularly in the later stages of the policy-making process; and had the effect of blunting certain recommendations that, in their original form, would be especially difficult for the system to accommodate, and of removing from consideration issues that might be better addressed through other policy vehicles.

It is not surprising that incrementalism had an effect on policy development. Previous investigations into policy making have shown that incrementalism is a natural response to conditions in which there is uncertainty about means and ends. It is worthy of note that in this case the effects of incrementalism were sharply circumscribed by rationalist approaches adopted by key actors. It is helpful to make a distinction between incrementalism in processes and incrementalism in outcomes. When the policy was defined narrowly, the evidence suggests that there was a considerably greater tilt toward rationalism in the processes used in the *OSIS* case, but that the outcomes were incremental (modest changes in policy). In our subsequent discussions, we shall argue that expanding the definition of the policy reduces the discrepancy between means and ends - we shall see that OSIS was less incremental than other policies in both process and outcome.

4.3.3 An Expanded Definition of the Policy

4.3.3.1 Description of an Expanded Definition

In our previous discussion of the nature of the policy we focused on a narrow definition based on changes that were made to the curriculum circular governing the operation of secondary schools. The analysis suggested that the policy had two broad thrusts: (a) equalizing opportunity (the policy tried to improve the treatment of non-university-bound students, those seeking careers in the work world, females, and members of cultural and linguistic minorities); and (b) greater control (the policy tried to increase requirements and standardize procedures).

If we expand our definition of the policy to include closely related developments occurring at the provincial level, a similar picture emerges. The developments are described in greater detail in Appendix S which identifies the final disposition of all SERP recommendations. Many of these recommendations were addressed by the ministry outside the curriculum circular governing secondary school operation. The ministry summarized such actions in *Update '84*.

In terms of equality of opportunity:

- The Premier announced that separate schools would be given full funding, effective September 1985. At the time of writing the enabling legislation awaits third reading.

- In 1984 the *Education Act* was amended to increase the language rights of Franco-Ontarians: the requirement concerning compulsory *anglais* courses was repealed, and certain boards were required to establish minority language sections which would be governed by trustees elected by French-speaking electors. More recently, Bill 119 (December 14, 1984) gave French-speaking students the right to a French-language education regardless of the area of the province in which they reside. At the time of writing, the government has asked for responses to proposed legislation (Bill 75, July 10, 1986) that would extend the right to elect French-speaking trustees.

- Extensive changes were made to accommodate students with special learning needs. These changes were introduced through Bill 82 and occurred simultaneously with the development of OSIS and its implementation.

- A commission was established to examine requests for equal public funding from private schools. The report (Shapiro, 1985) recommended that funding be provided contingent upon certain standards being met. This report is currently being considered by the Ministry of Education.

- Special curriculum materials in Basic Education and English as a Second Language were provided to small boards of education through correspondence courses and other distance education modes. This was intended to equalize access to special services regardless of board size. Similar efforts were launched in other curriculum areas for small remote secondary schools.

- Access of adult learners to educational facilities was improved through the distance education strategies for Basic Education and ESL, and by amending the Education Act to allow boards to enter into agreements with community colleges to meet adult learner needs.

- The Education Act was amended to permit a band, band council or educational authority to enter into an agreement with a school board with regard to the education of students of Native ancestry. A program to train Native teachers was established at one faculty of education.

- The needs of the work-bound student were addressed by the establishment of Community Industrial Training Committees in sixty-six communities to identify local training needs which might affect secondary schools. Sharing of facilities with colleges, business, and secondary schools was encouraged. Greater linkage of schools to colleges was provided through Linkage II programs. Linkage I programs, described in Circular OSIS, improved contacts between schools and apprenticeship programs.

Policy moves parallel to OSIS also confirmed the thrust toward greater control. Particularly noteworthy were attempts to exercise control through assessment. The ministry developed a policy on program evaluation, and addressed it through a series of provincial and board reviews. These efforts were complemented by a major attempt to develop assessment instruments for curriculum guideline objectives. Pilot testing in major subject areas has taken place, and the intentions of the newly-elected Minister of Education were to launch province-wide testing programs in selected grades and subjects.

Attention was also given to the re-writing of curriculum guidelines. The few that have appeared tend to have many more mandatory sections than the documents they replace. The content of the courses tends to be spelled out in much greater detail. These new guidelines tend to maintain directions established earlier. For example, the new Geography Guideline (Validation Draft, 1986) is much more prescriptive in the units which are compulsory; more detailed in describing what should go into these units; and more precise in operationalizing the problem-solving components that make up a transactional orientation. On balance, the thrust of the revisions is toward greater control rather than dramatic curriculum reform.

The quest for greater control is also evident in attempts by the ministry to co-ordinate its curriculum activities. The development of Schools General (not yet issued) can be seen as an attempt to develop an organizer for all its curriculum documents. Similarly the organization of various structures within the ministry to plan and implement curriculum changes indicates a desire for tighter control. The establishment of liaison and advisory councils, such as the Education Programs Advisory Council which includes senior ministry staff and representatives from twenty-three educational and community groups, can be seen as a desire for both increased input from secondary school stakeholders and greater control over this input.

In summary, the conception of the policy that emerges from expanding the policy definition to include parallel activities confirms the twin thrusts of OSIS. Looking beyond the curriculum circular confirms that the intentions for school and board change were magnified and elaborated by changes at the provincial level.

4.3.3.2 Implications for Theoretical Perspectives

The expanded definition of the policy has implications for our understanding of the relative influence of the six theoretical perspectives.

The influence of the environment as a pervasive force is virtually unchanged from our previous analysis. The environment had pivotal impact regardless of how broadly the policy is defined.

The role of political institutions is more complex. It is beyond the scope of this study to explore in depth the structural influences on the broader definition of the policy. The extension of separate school funding is, at the time of writing, one of the most hotly-contested political issues in recent memory. The decision appears to have been made by the Premier of the day without consulting others, including the Cabinet and the Minister of Education. Speculations about his motives continue to be rampant amid his silence concerning the factors that stimulated the change. Despite the heated debates when the legislation was put forward, the original proposal had the support of all parties in the House. The other changes requiring legislative approval (support for children with special learning needs, greater equality for French-speaking students, etc.) also enjoyed strong support in principle from the opposition parties, even though there was disagreement on specifics.

Consideration of the broader policy suggests that political institutions may have had greater impact than appeared to be the case in the discussion of the narrowly-defined policy in the previous section. It suggests that the agreement in principle on the need for secondary school reform that existed among all three parties might have been an important precondition for the process to be initiated. A more adventuresome government might have been willing to proceed in the absence of such consensus, but the latter years of the government headed by William Davis were characterized by great caution.

There are also changes in our understanding of the impact of special interest groups. The most significant modification concerns separate school supporters: they emerged as the biggest winners in the broader policy. Supporters of programs for children with special learning needs also appear to be more influential when the broader policy is examined. Parents and children of Native ancestry appear to have had greater impact, although a request for a replacement of the mandatory French requirement by a non-guideline course in Native language was denied. Private school supporters may emerge victorious; it is too early to tell.

Our perception of the other groups is virtually unchanged. Franco-Ontarians enjoyed considerable influence in the broader policy, just as they did in the narrow policy. Universities managed to obtain closer liaison with the ministry, but their call for province-wide testing at the Grade 13 level was met with the suggestion that universities develop post-admission tests of their own. The colleges made some gains in concert with business groups, as in the narrowly-defined policy. One can also see a previously undetected influence of small boards and small remote schools.

The influence of various teacher groups on the broader policy is more difficult to determine. There is some evidence of a stand-off. The attempts of the minister to establish a self-governing College of Teachers, and to organize pre-service and in-service training within it, foundered when the federations opposed the proposal. However, the ministry has recently funded a large research project to examine the entire issue in detail.

The desire of OTF to gain control of the provincial curriculum revision process failed when the ministry disagreed with its claim that they had the structures and expertise to do the job. When teachers were allied with other groups - for example, when they joined with the bureaucratic elite in support of a more prescriptive curriculum - they had some success.

The influence of the bureaucratic elite is as least as strong in the broad policy as in the narrow one. Its pursuit of greater provincial control over the curriculum and pressure toward greater standardization is particularly well demonstrated in the development of provincial assessment instruments. If anything, its influence was even greater in the broader policy. The initiatives that were taken emerged from structures that were significantly less accessible to input from other groups and notably less visible to public scrutiny.

Rationalist principles are evident in the broader policy, although not to the same extent as was noted earlier. The method of developing policy elements through commissions was taken with the private schools and small remote schools issues. Each report reveals a careful consideration of alternatives, criteria, and the generation of an extensive, relevant data bank. Other issues addressed internally by the ministry also contained rationalist elements, although the processes are more ambiguous and much less open. The striking exception to the rationalist approach is the separate schools decision.

Incrementalism played a slightly larger role in the broader policy. The changes that were made tended to be narrower in scope and considered policy alternatives only marginally different from existing practice. Practicality was often the dominant criterion. Again the striking exception is the separate schools decision which appears to defy categorization. In one sense, it was an incremental decision in that it was a continuation of past decisions which gradually reduced the gap between public and separate school grants. In another sense, it was a dramatic departure from an implicit compromise that had developed over an extended period of time. A truly incrementalist solution would have been to reduce the funding gap to almost, but not quite, zero.

In summary, the relative influence of the six perspectives changes slightly when the broader conception of the policy is examined. The influence of the environment remains the same. The roles of political institutions and the bureaucratic elite increase. Some special interest groups also become more influential, one group strikingly so. Rationalism declines and incrementalism advances.

4.4 IMPLICATIONS OF THE CASE

4.4.1 Implications for Understanding Policy Development in Ontario Education

Previous studies of policy development in Ontario education have tended to look at each case from multiple perspectives (similar to the perspectives applied in this chapter), and to treat each case in isolation. In this section, we attempt to bring these studies together to address a series of issues concerning the interrelationships between the factors found to influence policy development.

All previous investigators have acknowledged the importance of the environment as a stimulus to policy development. The most extensive account of the role of the environment is provided by Stamp (1982) in a review of educational policy development in Ontario from 1876 to 1976. Stamp was able to find strong links between environmental changes and revisions to the policies governing schools. He also found that when policies were developed by bureaucratic elites with less attention to public preferences (e.g., the Progressivist curriculum of the late 1930s), the policies encountered serious opposition, and were eventually overturned. The environment is likely to stimulate policy development whenever a consensus emerges that schools are incongruent with society. Such a perception can develop when schools fail to accommodate social change or when the internal dynamics of schools takes them beyond their constituencies.

There is tacit agreement among investigators that attention to the environment alone is insufficient to account for policy development. The relative importance of various factors in bringing environmental preferences to bear varies from case to case. Consider for example the comparative impact of political institutions, the bureaucratic elite, and special interests.

Stamp's work provides evidence of a continual shifting of influence between bureaucratic elites and political institutions. When strong ministers (George Ross, Howard Ferguson, George Drew) are in control, the machinations of party politics are pivotal to policy development. The elite respond to the direction of their ministers. In other periods the influence of the bureaucracy rises, particularly when there are strong deputies such as Duncan McArthur and John Althouse willing to fill the vacuum.

The past two decades provide examples of both. The development of OSIS in the early 1980s provides an instance of the former: the development of the policy was significantly influenced by the actions of a strong minister (Bette Stephenson). The 1970s, a decade of intense conflict within the bureaucracy, provide instances of the latter. The major factor in the emergence of the credit system in the early 1970s was the victory of the liberals in one branch of the ministry over the conservatives in another branch (Stapleton, 1977). By the mid-1970s the conservatives reversed the trend and the bureaucracy provided the major stimulus for a move toward a core curriculum policy (Nelson and Kleinendorst, n.d.). It was the absence of a strong minister in these latter cases that made it possible for bureaucratic elites to dominate the scene. The strong trends toward centralized educational decision making across Canada reported by Duhamel and Cyze, (1985) might provide further evidence of this principle: as other social issues have displaced education from the top of the political agenda, the education portfolio has ceased to attract the strongest politicians, leaving the field open to bureaucratic elites who leave centralized control as their spoor.

Other factors impinge upon this principle. For example, minority government in the mid-1970s and struggles for party leadership increased the influence of political institutions on policy formulation. But in most instances it was the behaviour of the minister which determined the relative influence of political institutions and bureaucratic elites on policy.

Studies of educational policy development in Ontario show that special interest groups can exert an influence on policy, but the degree of influence varies. Duane, Townsend, and Bridgeland (1985) provide a series of cases indicating that special interest groups, particularly the OSSTF and other teacher federations, have powerfully influenced educational policies. Nelson and Kleinendorst (n.d.) offer data showing that the OSSTF, headmasters, trustees, and home and school groups can form coalitions, in one case to promote a core curriculum. Our analysis of OSIS, along with that of Baker (1985), paints a different picture suggesting that in this case special interest groups had considerably less influence. The data of Stapleton (1977) supports this view: he claimed that the influence of special interest groups on the development of the credit system was minimal.

The relative influence of special interest groups seems to depend on two factors: the actions of competitive groups and the decision-making strategy followed in the policy-making process.

Special interest groups have greatest influence when they are unopposed. In OSIS their influence was weaker because the Minister took steps to diffuse their effect. She ensured that all stakeholders in the policy were heard, and that no single group was able to exercise overwhelming influence. She also acted as a spokesperson for the public interest throughout the development phase. Special interests had less influence on this policy because they tended to cancel each other out. In this way actions that occurred at the political institutions level inhibited the influence of special interests. Similarly actions at the bureaucratic elite level can diminish the power of special interests, as demonstrated in the development of the credit system. Here the infighting within the bureaucracy effectively shut out participation by other groups.

Decision-making strategies constitute the second factor affecting the influence of special interest groups. Rationalist tendencies that invite widespread input inhibit the influence of special interests. They prosper with incrementalist approaches in which the array of alternatives and criteria considered can be restricted to those most compatible with the status quo. OSIS provides the clearest example of a case in which the strength of a rationalist approach to decision making reduced the power of special interests. In this instance the use of rationalism might be seen as a means through which the agents of political institutions and members of the bureaucratic elite were able to keep special interests at bay.

Finally, the relative influence of rationalism and incrementalism seems to depend upon the belief systems of key actors in the policy-making process. To a large degree incrementalism is the normal state of affairs in developing educational policy in Ontario, as it is whenever decisions are made in contexts in which means and ends are not easily calculated (Braybrooke and Lindbolm, 1963). It is rare for policy makers to engage in the decision optimizing processes described in the OSIS case particularly when key participants were conscious of the uniqueness of their activities. As such, OSIS provides a demonstration that the participatory policy making called for by Morgan (1984) is possible, and that contrary to Common's (1985) concerns such participation need not lead to lack of consensus. The importance of the demonstration may go beyond educational policy making in Ontario. Hammond (1980), in a discussion of the quality of public policy making in a variety of domains and jurisdictions, argues that most policy makers confess to operating in a weak quasi-rational mode: their data base is uncertain; there are no controls; there is no conscious manipulation of variables; and the procedures are inconsistent. In contrast, Hammond argues that it is possible for policy to be developed in a strong quasi-rational mode: policy makers recognize that their ability to systematically manipulate circumstances is reduced, and that they are unable to disentangle variables, but they are able to overcome these problems by using aids to cognition that render the process more rational. Particularly important in this regard, and pointing the way for policy makers to go beyond the OSIS process, are the use of inferential statistics, computer analysis of data and analyses of judgement and decision. OSIS was an advance over the past; it is possible to imagine that the strengthening of rationalist approaches could produce procedures for developing policy that are more powerful still.

4.4.2 Implications for the Development of Policy by the Ministry of Education

The development of OSIS has been recognized by senior officials in the ministry as a significant departure from past policy making. Participants in the process described it as a unique event, and the Minister of the day indicated that one of its major outcomes was its beneficial effect on decision making within the Ministry of Education. The evidence reviewed above provides considerable justification for the view that OSIS was an exemplary model of participatory policy making. In the remainder of the chapter we attempt to capture this model and suggest ways in which it could be made stronger.

In the model, policy development is conceptualized as a problem-solving activity in which there is continual recycling through a number of distinct stages.

4.4.2.1 Framework Construction

In this stage policy makers identify the central issues to be addressed by the policy. It is a problem definition activity in which the central elements of the problem are identified in a structure that highlights the relationships among these elements.

In OSIS the framework consisted of a very large set of decision matrices, each containing a broad array of alternative courses of action and criteria for judging the worth of these actions. These matrices were made very explicit to all participants. The most insightful participants had a clear sense of the interlocking nature of the matrices; for example the decision on the continuance of Grade 13 had major ramifications for other decisions. For the inner core of policy makers, the framework constituted a hierarchical network of nested decisions.

The framework construction activity was governed by the bureaucratic elite, at the direction of the Minister. The Minister was responding to a consensus for school reform emerging from the environment. The specific details of the framework were provided by policy stakeholders. The framework was continually modified during the policy-making process as information was provided, processed, and communicated. Its ultimate form became clear only when the process was brought to closure.

In this stage rationalism, tempered by the exigencies of the context, was in considerable flower. In our view the successful treatment of this phase was a major contributor to the effectiveness of OSIS. We have two suggestions for improvement.

First, the treatment of evidence in this stage could be made more effective. There was ample evidence available to OSIS policy makers that could have been used to identify the contents of the decision matrices. It appears that this evidence was accessed and used in a fairly ad hoc way. Key actors made significant efforts to provide policy makers with information about decisions that were needed, as well as appropriate alternatives and criteria. But there was no systematic search of the available literature. Furthermore this evidence seemed to be used primarily as background in forming the agenda of the deliberations. Specific connections between evidence and, for example, the selection of a particular issue for discussion, could often not be drawn.

Our first recommendation is that the treatment of evidence in the framework construction stage could be tightened by organizing at the outset a systematic search of the environment by carefully surveying readily available documents and small samples of key groups. This would be a more formal needs assessment that would bring to the surface concerns of various stakeholders as well as their preferred choices and criteria. The scope and hence the cost of the needs assessment would be a function of the degree of policy change predicted. The information thus provided would also be useful in subsequent stages of the process. Framework construction would also be improved if the information so accessed were linked more directly to the elements of the problem: the framework would be more effective if specific elements within it were adopted with a rationale that would overtly demonstrate that discussion of this issue in these terms warranted policy makers' attention.

Second, the framework could be made more visible as it emerges. Not all policy makers recognized the framework of OSIS as an interlocking network; some detected fewer linkages, seeing the decisions as a less connected series of discrete choices. It was only near the end of the process, when the issues were displayed as clusters of recommendations in the publication of the ROSE Report, that the linkages were made clear to all. Those who had failed to realize the connections between one issue and another were probably less influential than their colleagues. In this sense the participatory intentions of the model were impeded by the failure of some to appreciate its complexity.

Our second recommendation for this stage is bi-dimensional. Our main recommendation is that policy makers explicitly display their frameworks in all their complexity. In the case of OSIS this would have meant that process leaders would have attempted to record publicly the network of subordinate and superordinate issues that needed to be addressed. This is not to encourage premature closure on the structure of the framework, but it does argue that the structure will be more likely to emerge, and to be used more effectively, if attention is given to its external representation.

There is a necessary corollary to this recommendation: without appropriate training some policy makers are likely to be confused by a complex framework. Providing this training, in a workshop setting similar to the in-service activities conducted at various points in the OSIS process, might focus on the transition from the treatment of a series of single decision problems to problems in which many decisions are nested. The training component could be incorporated as a central task of policy makers in this stage of their deliberation; the development and subsequent refinement of the framework for the project could serve as practice for the training as well as being the real work of the participants.

Our suggestions for the strengthening of the framework construction phase of the model are not intended to deprecate the advances made by the OSIS policy makers. In our view, their work marks a significant advance over the efforts of previous groups.

4.4.2.2 Filling the Framework with Data

Once the framework has been developed, policy makers need to fill this framework with relevant information. In the case of OSIS this information was primarily data on the value of each alternative on each criterion, within each decision matrix. Most of this information was provided by the participants themselves. Some information was provided by other agencies, especially the Ministry of Education, at the request of the policy makers. There was also one survey commissioned. Key actors in the process played a critical role in massaging the information; that is, they modified it so that policy makers would be able to integrate the data into the shared framework.

In our view this stage of the model worked well in OSIS. Adoption of our previous recommendations for the framework construction phase would have beneficial effects on the framework filling stage model as well. We also have two new suggestions for improvement.

First, the process of relying upon available data appears to be cost efficient initially, but it may not be so in the long run. Policy makers may find that the specific data they need is simply not available or that the difficulties of accessing it are so significant that they begin to rely on more intuitive judgements. Marshalling information which is credible and relevant to the policy development process may be accomplished more effectively by commissioning its collection directly. This may take the form of focused searches conducted by policy makers themselves or by external groups. In some policy-making activities this data collection might go beyond surveys of preferences to include small-scale experiments or field trials of key proposals.

Second, the massaging of information to make it fit into the framework for policy development is an essential task. If some but not others are able to perform this task, influence on the policy becomes distributed unequally. In the OSIS case there is evidence that members of the bureaucratic elite were particularly skilful at this level - for which other participants should be grateful because it contributed significantly to the success of the deliberations - but they appeared not to have shared this expertise with others. There is some evidence that their greater control of this expertise was a major source of their influence on the policy. To the extent that it occurs, it is contrary to the participatory intentions of the model. Our recommendation is that a training component be incorporated within the framework filling stage to ensure that all policy makers are able to present information in a form that is consumable by others.

4.4.2.3 Processing Information

As information is incorporated within the framework, policy makers summarize it to reduce data complexity and interpret it to reach conclusions.

These processing activities became especially important in the latter stages of the development of OSIS. After several iterations of the problem the volume of data became enormous, particularly when policy makers were dealing with large numbers of responses to the actions of earlier committees. Policy makers responded to the volume with several strategies: they grouped all information within the appropriate cells of their framework; they aggregated the data using simple frequency counts; they delegated responsibility for many of the summarizing tasks to members of the bureaucratic elite; and they articulated the rationales for all conclusions (i.e., the adoption, revision and rejection of each recommendation).

In addition to our previous recommendations which would have a beneficial effect on this stage, we also make two more suggestions:

First, the delegation of responsibility for summarizing information is an essential step whenever volume exceeds capacity. But in OSIS the delegators gradually lost contact with the raw data. They had little notion of the procedures being used by the summarizers, and consequently had no way of knowing what dimensions of the information were deleted. There were also instances in which information was added in the summary; for example, public feedback on separate school funding and music education was treated differently because the summarizers concluded that a write-in campaign was operating in each case. By delegating responsibility for summarizing to key actors without specifying the procedures to be used, policy makers may have delegated more than they intended. Those who understood the summaries were better able to use these data to draw conclusions; this distributed power unequally within the policy-making group. Our first recommendation is that when processing tasks need to be delegated to a subgroup or to outsiders the procedures to be used should be specified so that the data summaries are equally meaningful to all.

Our second recommendation concerns the sophistication of the procedures used to summarize and interpret data. The evidence from OSIS indicates that machine processing was brought in rather late in the process; at the beginning tabulations were done by hand. The processing was necessarily slow and descriptive. The framework used in OSIS lent itself to more powerful techniques based on advances in decision theory. For example, information relevant to decisions involving multiple alternatives with many criteria can be processed more effectively using various multi-attribute utility methods (such as those described by Thompson, 1980). These methods provide for differential weighting of criteria and can be done by hand or more easily with a micro-computer. Certain policies might lend themselves to more demanding processing tasks involving main frame power such as Bayesian decision rules recommended by Edwards, Guttentag, and Snapper, 1975. We suggest that the ministry's model of policy development would be more effective if it used the most powerful processing procedures warranted by the problem.

4.4.2.4 Communication

The final stage in the problem-solving model of policy development involves communication of the products and processes to policy stakeholders. OSIS provides a vivid example of extensive communication that has since been internalized within the ministry for the review of curriculum guidelines. The mechanism involves the serial distribution of progressive drafts of material with feedback from small samples of groups broadly representative of program stakeholders.

This participatory approach to communication in OSIS involved several aspects critical to its success: the groups receiving information were carefully chosen to be representative of all interest groups as well as members of the general public; the ministry made an attempt to focus the attention of each group on the implications of the information for the recipients; the framework was maintained as the governing structure for the delivery of information and the receipt of feedback; and communication was a constant process, providing audiences with updated information through each stage of the problem-solving cycle, and through each iteration of the cycle.

Our suggestions for improvement are modest. First, despite the best intentions of policy makers, information was not distributed equally to all groups. Unsurprisingly, the greater the distance from the deliberations, the slower the information was to arrive. The group most disadvantaged by this was the non-educator community, especially ordinary parents who were aware that major changes were in the works, but did not know how and when these would affect their children. To a lesser extent, teachers tended to receive information more slowly and less completely than others. The consequences of these deficiencies may not be felt until policy implementation is attempted. Our first recommendation is that greater efforts be made to keep non-educators and teachers informed of developments in policy making.

Our second recommendation concerns the maintenance of secrecy in certain phases of policy development. OSIS was a remarkably open process, but there were some limits. Members of SERP committees were instructed not to provide details of committee deliberations to their constituencies. This instruction had beneficial effects in that it weakened the influence of interest groups, and inhibited the development of premature opposition. At a later immediacy constraints on communication were less benign. There was a lengthy period in which little information emerged about the response of the ministry to the debates on secondary school policy. This aroused uncertainty and anxiety in the field. In retrospect it is difficult to appreciate why ministry officials were not more open about the nature and outcomes of their internal debates. Our second recommendation is that restrictions on access to information about ministry policy deliberations be instituted only in circumstances in which compelling need can be demonstrated.

In summary we see OSIS as an exemplary instance of educational policy making in Ontario, and we urge the ministry to incorporate aspects of the participatory model into its ongoing policy formation activities. Our recommendations for changes in the model are intended to build on existing strengths. We have two further suggestions for change; these recommendations address the model as a whole rather than its separate stages.

First, we recommend that the ministry engage in critical self-monitoring at several levels. Consider for example the procedures for provincial reviews. These reviews express the commitment of the ministry to investigate the effects of its policies. They could be made more useful in policy development terms if certain revisions were made. Student achievement of the thirteen goals of education is given a prominent place in some reviews and plays a lesser role in others: we suggest that student achievement should be the central criterion in the assessment of all policies. We also suggest that these reviews would have a more direct impact on policy formation if they contained triggering mechanisms that would identify when policy revisions are required. These might be specified in advance of data collection in general terms for all policies or be developed in advance for assessing individual policies. This interest in reviewing the effects of policies might also be extended to internal and external reviews of policy decision making. Bringing the processes used to the surface, and assessing their worth is likely to contribute to the further development of the ministry as a reflective institution capable of learning from its experiences and refining its methods of operation.

Our second recommendation about the policy development model as a whole concerns the personal factor (Patton, 1978). There is evidence emerging in a variety of fields that individuals can have surprisingly large beneficial effects on institutions. Our review of OSIS indicated a number of occasions in which one or two persons acted decisively and with insight to advance the policy formation process. This suggests to us that intensive training for designated individuals on policy-making procedures would be a worthwhile expenditure of in-service resources.

The implications of OSIS for policy making in the Ministry of Education could be considerable if the model is implemented in other policy-making tasks. We also think that this model could be extended with the modifications recommended above. In our view the ministry's beneficial impact on Ontario schools would increase if these actions are taken.

4.5 BIBLIOGRAPHY

Baker, P. "Curriculum policy making in Ontario: a case study of the policy formation process leading to the establishment of the Secondary Education Review Project". Doctoral dissertation, University of Toronto, 1985.

Braybrooke, D., and Lindholm, C. A strategy of decision. New York: Free Press, 1963.

Common, R., Ed. New focuses on educational policy-making in Canada. St. Catharines: Brock University, College of Education, 1985.

Connelly, F.M.; Crocker, R.K.; and Kass, H. Science education in Canada: policies, practices and perceptions. Toronto: OISE Press, 1985.

Council of Ministers of Education, Canada. Secondary education in Canada: a student transfer guide. 3rd ed. Toronto: Council of Ministers of Education, Canada, 1983.

Duane, E.; Townsend, R.; and Bridgeland, W. "Power patterns among Ontario and Michigan interest groups". In New focuses in educational policy making in Canada, edited by R. Common. St. Catharines: Brock University, Faculty of Education, 1985.

Duhamel, R., and Cyze, M. "Trends in ministry of education policy-making". In New focuses in educational policy making in Canada, edited by R. Common. St. Catharines: Brock University, Faculty of Education, 1985.

Dye, T.R. Understanding public policy. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972.

Easton, D. A framework for political analysis. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965.

Edwards, W.; Guttentag, M.; and Snapper, K. "A decision-theoretic approach to evaluation research". In Handbook of Evaluation Research. Vol. 1, edited by E. Struening and M. Guttentag. Beverly Hills, Ca: Sage, 1975, pp. 139-181.

Gergen, K. "Methodology in the study of policy formation". In The study of policy formation, edited by B.A. Bauer and K.J. Gergen. New York: The Free Press, 1968.

Hammond, K. "Toward increasing competence of thought in public policy formation". In Policy studies review annual, edited by B.H. Raven, pp. 81-102. Beverly Hills, Ca.: Sage, 1980.

Housegor I.E. "The ideological and the political in policy making". In Educational research and policy formation. Toronto: Canadian Education Association, 1977, pp. 26-34.

Jones, C., and Matthes, D. "Policy formation". In Encyclopedia of policy studies, edited by S.S. Nagel, pp. 117-141. New York: Marcel Dekker, 1983.

King, A.J.C. Achievement of Ontario Grade 13 students in university. Toronto: Ministry of Education, Ontario, 1982.

King, A.J.C. Holding power. Toronto: OSSTF, 1980.

King, A.J.C. Continuity and diversity of courses, the Secondary/Post-Secondary Interface Project III: Natural Programs. Vol. I. Toronto: Ministry of Education, Ontario, 1976.

Lambie, W.J. "The renewal of secondary education as a result of the Secondary Education Review project (SERP): a case study of policy development". Doctoral dissertation, University of Toronto, 1985.

Livingstone, D.W. Public attitudes toward education in Ontario 1978: The OISE survey report. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1978.

Livingstone, D.W., and Hart, D.J. Public attitudes toward education in Ontario 1979: Second OISE survey. Informal Series/15. Toronto: OISE Press, 1979.

Livingstone, D.W., and Hart, D.J. Public attitudes toward education in Ontario 1980: Third OISE survey. Informal Series/24. Toronto: OISE Press, 1980.

MacKeracher, D. Adult basic education: a model for policy development. Toronto: Canadian Congress on Learning Opportunities for Women, 1979.

Miller, J. The educational spectrum: orientation to curriculuum. New York: Longman, 1983.

Morgan, E. "Technocratic v. democratic options for educational policy". Policy Studies Review, 3 (1984), pp. 263-278.

Nelson, N., and Kleinendorst, J. (n.d.). "Core curriculum in Ontario: creation and consequences". Unpublished paper.

Ontario. Ministry of Education and Ministry of Colleges and Universities. Issues and directions. Toronto: Ministry of Education and Ministry of Colleges and Universities, Ontario, 1980.

Ontario. Ministry of Education. The Ontario Assessment Instrument Pool: a curriculum-based aid to evaluation. Review and Evaluation Bulletin, Vol. 1, no. 1. Toronto, Ministry of Education, Ontario, 1979.

Organization for Economic Co-oeration and Development. Reviews of national policies for education: Canada. Paris: OECD, 1976.

Ontario Secondary School Teachers Federation, Provincial Research Committee. At what cost? A study of the role of secondary school in Ontario. Toronto: OSSTF, 1976.

Patton, M. Utilization-focused evaluation. Beverly Hills, Ca: Sage, 1978.

Ryan, D.W. Evaluation of the scheduling organization at Hillcrest High School. Toronto: Ministry of Education, Ontario, 1980.

Schoettle, E.C.B. "The state of the art in policy studies". In The study of policy formation, edited by R.A. Bauer and K.J. Gergen. New York: The Free Press, 1968, pp. 149-179.

Shapiro, B.J. The Report of the Commission on Private Schools in Ontario. Toronto: Ministry of Education, Ontario, 1985.

Simeon R. "Studying public policy". Canadian Journal of Political Science. IX (December 1976), pp. 548-580.

Stamp, R. The schools of Ontario, 1876-1976. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1982.

Stapleton, J. "The department of education as a policy-maker: the case of the credit system in Ontario". In The politics of Canadian education, edited by J. Wallin. Edmonton: CSSE, June 1977, pp. 39-45.

Steinberger, P. "Typologies of public policy: Meaning construction and the public process". In Policy studies review annual, edited by I.L. Horowitz, pp. 27-39. Beverly Hills, Ca.: Sage, 1981.

Thompson, M. Benefit-cost analysis for program evaluation. Beverly Hills, Ca: Sage, 1980.

Warren, W.K., and King, A.J.C. School to work-study. Toronto: OSSTF, Provincial Research Committee, 1979.

Weiss, C., and Gruber, J. "Using knowledge for control in fragmented policy areas". Journal of Policy Analysis and Management 3 (2984), pp. 225-247.

Worth, W.H. "Perspectives on policy formation: an administrator's view". In Educational research and policy formation. Toronto: Canadian Education Association, 1977, pp. 15-21.

Yeakey, C. "Emerging policy research in educational research and decision making". Review of Research in Education 10 (1982), pp. 255-301.

PART II:

FACTORS INFLUENCING PRINCIPALS' IMPLEMENTATION OF OSIS

Chapter 5

PURPOSES

The extent to which educational policies have their anticipated consequences is eventually determined by those who implement them. In the case of the OSIS policy, in particular, implementation of both its spirit and intent is very much up to the secondary school principal. The purposes of this part of the study were intended to better understand how secondary principals responded to the task of OSIS policy implementation, why they responded as they did and what conceptions they held of the policy; and to help identify those factors which helped or hindered the implementation of the policy at the school level.

This part of the current study replicated, in a different policy context (OSIS vs. Bill 82), a number of aspects of a study carried out by Trider (1985), and Trider and Leithwood (in press). Questions addressed were:

1. How much influence did principals attribute to selected factors in the way they approached the implementation of OSIS (Research Question 19, Part I - What factors appeared to have the most and least effect on the initiation of OSIS implementation)?

2. Were differences found among the dominant orientations of principals toward OSIS implementation which related to differences in the perceived influence of factors?

3. Were differences in the principals' perceptions of the favourableness of the condition of factors related to their perceptions of the influence of those factors?

4. Was the stage in the change process ("early", "at present") related to the perceived extent of the influence of factors?

5. Were differences in the principals' perceptions of the degree to which OSIS policies had been implemented related to differences in their perceptions of the influence of factors?

6. Was there a relationship between the principals' perceptions of the influence of factors and selected background variables such as age, number of years as a secondary principal, sex and size of school?

7. What were principals' understandings of the main features of OSIS policy (as these differed from HS1 policy) and how did these understandings compare with the policy as specified in Circular OSIS?

In this part of the study, the review of literature appears as Chapter 6 because the concepts derived from this review provided the basis on which the survey instrument was constructed. Research methods are discussed in Chapter 7; the results and conclusions in Chapter 8. A copy of the survey instrument and related letters appear in the Appendices.

Chapter 6

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The stimulus for this literature review was a research project concerning the development, implementation, and institutionalization of an Ontario Ministry of Education policy designed to change the structure, curriculum, and approaches to instruction of schools serving students from Grade 7 through secondary school graduation.[6] In the context of this research project, policies were viewed as "interventions into the social and political structure" of school systems; they were also viewed as "instruments for improving or adapting" schools (Downey, 1977). Policies were defined as "if-then" statements identifying initial conditions or actions and predicted consequences or goals (Pressman and Wildavsky, 1973). "Implementation" is the process of putting actions associated with policy into practice.

A review of research was undertaken, in two parts, as a means for identifying research questions likely to produce an adequate understanding of the policy implementation process. The review includes development of a model of policy implementation and detailed identification of those characteristics of each component in the model. Section 6.2.1 of the review describes the policy implementation model drawing on research undertaken largely in non-educational contexts. Section 6.2.2 revisits the model using educational research. As well, the two bodies of research are compared explicitly in Section 6.2.2.

6.2 MODELLING THE POLICY IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS

6.2.1 A Review of Research from Non-Educational Contexts[7]

Our model of the policy implementation process was based, in part, on our own prior efforts to conceptualize implementation (Leithwood and Robinson, 1979; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982; Leithwood, 1982). It was further formed by the results of a sample of twenty-five policy implementation studies published between 1971 and 1982. Sixteen of these studies reported original (usually case study) data as a basis for conceptualizing policy implementation; nine were based on conceptions of the process on reviews of extant data. The studies were identified through a search of all available 1971 to 1982 issues of journals specializing in policy matters: Public Policy, Policy Sciences, Policy Studies Review Annual, and Harvard Educational Review. Issues of Policy Analysis were reviewed from 1976 to 1982. In addition, three collections of frequently referenced papers (Williams and Elmore, 1976; Brigham and Brown, 1980; Ingram and Mann, 1980) and two frequently cited books (Bardach, 1978; Pressman and Wildavsky, 1973) were examined. Many fields of public policy, in addition to education, were of concern in these studies.

---

[6] The policy was Ontario Schools: Intermediate and Senior Divisions, 1984 (OSIS).

[7] This section is based substantially on Leithwood and Anderson (1983).

The task of model building was approached, first, by searching for constructs which appeared to be general across the policy contexts of original research, as well as alternative conceptions of policy implementation. In the face of considerable apparent diversity, it was possible, nevertheless, to identify three questions fundamental to the research taken as a whole; one question was: How does the implementation process differ over time? Concerns about this question were evident, for example, in Berman's (1978) distinction between initiation and institutionalization, and speculations by Weatherly and Lipsky (1977) about how the nature of demands on teachers and administrators change between the first and third years of enacting special education policy. From this question, the construct "change" was derived for incorporation in our model.

Another fundamental question apparent in policy implementation research was: What role is played by various individuals, groups and agencies during the implementation process, and why? Clearly, policy implementation depends on role changes of various types, and the nature of the demands for change implied by policy vary considerably from role to role. This is evident, for example, in Williams's (1976) broad distinction between the policy and operations spheres, and Berman's (1978) later use of the terms micro- and macro-implementation, in reference to essentially the same matter. This question was the basis for the construct "implementation agents" included in our model.

Finally, most of the policy implementation studies wanted to know what factors affected the nature of these roles and the relative contribution of such factors to the implementation process. "Implementation components" was the construct derived from this question. Mechling's (1978) work, for example, suggested that the hierarchical organizational structure of the New York sanitation department stifled change by delaying decisions. The power of community politics to dramatically reshape the image of a federal urban renewal policy, as implemented in one city, was demonstrated by Derthick (1976).

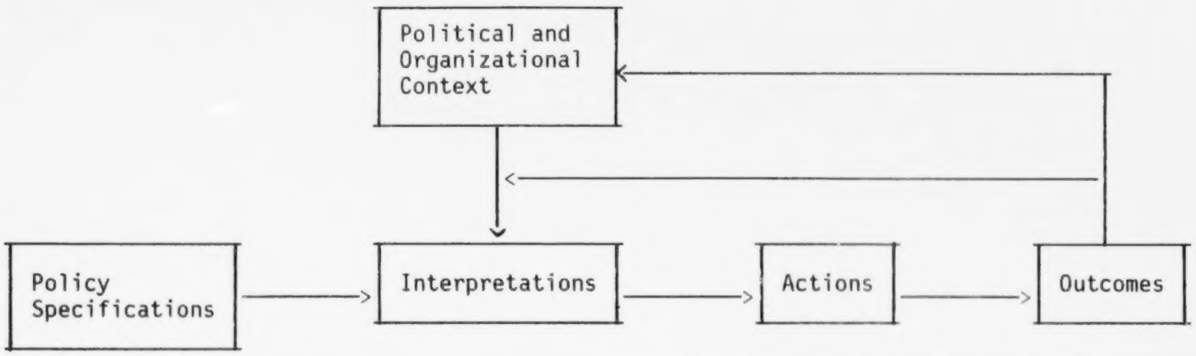

Figure 6-1: The "implementation components" construct of a model of the policy implementation process.

As constructs derived from these general research questions, the relationships among "change", "implementation agents", and "implementation components" are readily specified. Social change is defined by the behaviour of people; the roles of implementation agents describe both the degree and nature of change associated with policy implementation. These roles, in turn, are determined by implementation components. Figure 6-1 identified five such components. As in the case of the three constructs basic to our model, these implementation components emerged from our review of the literature as critical in determining the relative success or failure of policy implementation. Some of the components are similar to those proposed by Van Meter and Van Horn (1975), and Van Horn and Van Meter (1977), and are defined as follows:

- Specifications: responsibilities or actions explicitly identified for an agent in the policy itself or subsequent regulations.

- Interpretation: the range of meanings associated with each specification and expectations for action on the part of identified agents.

- Context: characteristics of the organizational or broader political environment in which implementation must take place likely to affect the implementation process and/or the outcome of implementation.

- Actions: the response of agents to explicit or implicit demands for new activities or a change in their activities contained in the policy itself or subsequent regulations.

- Outcomes: the impact of actions on other agents (including clients), the policy itself, related regulations or other major policies.

Applied to an individual or group of implementation agents, Figure 6-1 suggests that the outcomes of policy implementation are a function of the direct actions of some set of agents. Such actions result from the information processing activities of the individual in which personal goals, policy specifications, and a wide range of political and organizational factors figure strongly (what people do depends on what they think). The outcomes themselves, once directly experienced, or fed back through contextual factors, potentially influence the policy itself as well as the interpretation by an agent of how she or he will act in relation to it.

Each of the five implementation components (policy, context, interpretation, action, outcome) and relationships among them will now be examined in order to identify the more detailed factors influencing policy implementation associated with each component.

6.2.1.1 Policy specifications

A policy, as already suggested, is an "if-then" statement specifying, however ambiguously, initial conditions (or actions) and predicted consequences (or goals).

The nature of policy goals and how they are specified has an important stimulating or inhibiting effect on policy implementation. In a similar fashion, initial conditions or actions present two quite distinct faces to policy implementors. One face reveals the resources available, the new instruments to be called on in efforts to realize the ends of policy; for example, new funds are often among these resources. The other face exposes constraints: the time frame available for implementation, limits on action alternatives, other policies which must not be jeopardized and the like. Indeed, the same categories of policy instruments may provide either resources or constraints depending on their adequacy for achieving policy ends.

Two features of a policy's goals appear to influence policy implementation: level of aspiration and clarity. Neither is a function of the goals in and of themselves, rather of the goals in relation to relevant aspects of particular implementation settings. The first of these features, the policy's level of aspiration, appears to be the most fundamental. As conceived here, level of aspiration encompasses several aspects of the relation between goals and settings cited in the literature as:

- Scope or magnitude of change (e.g., Berman 1978);
- Complexity (e.g., Pressman and Wildavsky 1973; Elmore 1980; Fullan 1982); and
- Practicality (e.g., Berman 1978; Williams 1976; Fullan 1982).

Some questions which the level of aspiration raises are:

- Does the policy call for major shifts in what is presently being accomplished?

- How difficult is it for implementors of the policy to incorporate new practices into their existing routines?

- How many layers of administration and how many different organizational units and roles are involved?

- Is the policy problem solvable?

- Does achievement of the policy goal(s) require knowledge that has yet to be discovered?

- Is the change a modest deviation from past policies in the same area of concern?

Non-incremental policy goals are clearly more difficult to implement than goals which are incremental in nature. Experiences of failure with sweeping social reforms in Third World nations (Smith, 1973), as well as efforts by the U.S. Government to reverse urban decay (Derthick, 1976), offer convincing evidence of this point.

The simplest solution to implementation failure, with respect to policy goals, is to formulate less ambitious, more obviously achievable goals. In some circumstances this may well be an appropriate solution, but often it is not. Policy makers are expected to chart the course of social action further into the future than may be suggested by such goals. Political support for a new policy may depend, in part, on its "visionary" qualities. When these conditions prevail, two additional alternatives are suggested as logical solutions. Highly ambitious policy goals might be accompanied by at least some short-term instrumental goals that permit gradual but systematic evolution from past policies in the same area. The second alternative has been suggested by Majone and Wildavsky (1978). Some policy problems, they point out, are best understood through their solutions. Implementation of major policy goals often involves not only finding answers but also reformulating problems in terms more amenable to solution. Successful implementation of a major policy goal, following this alternative, would seem to require explicit establishment of procedures for problem solving as part of the policy goal itself.

A second relevant feature of a policy goal is the degree of clarity with which it is specified. The vagueness and ambiguity associated with many policies is a necessary outcome of some policy development processes. Conflicts among the vested interests which compete in the negotiation of policy will often be resolved by non-decision (Hargrove, 1975), by framing the policy goal so that those in conflict believe their interest to be potentially recognized in the policy (implicitly, if not explicitly). While this vagueness permits policy approval, it leaves specification to those charged with policy implementation. Such specification by non-policy makers permits substantial alteration from a policy's original intent (Williams, 1976; Nagel, 1977). It also permits the implementation process to be viewed as the continuation of politics by other means (Majone and Wildavsky, 1978) for those intent on winning recognition for interests not adequately reflected, in their view, in the policy itself. Other things being equal, increased policy goal clarity is associated with increased likelihood of realizing the policy makers' original intentions (Sabatier and Mazmanian, 1979).

Policies potentially specify not only goals but actions by which these goals are to be achieved. Three characteristics of specified actions for goal achievement appear to have a bearing on the success of policy implementation: validity, complexity, and clarity (Van Horn and Van Meter, 1977; Banfield, 1976; Williams, 1976; Murphy, 1971; Majone and Wildavsky, 1978). The first characteristic, validity, refers to the ability of a suggested course of action to achieve the policy goal. For example, does "mainstreaming" result in a more socially satisfying educational environment for handicapped children as assumed by most contemporary special education policy? If it does not, the chances of realizing the policy goal itself are greatly diminished. This is the instrumental side of validity as applied to actions specified in policy.

Policy implementation is also influenced by the complexity of the means specified for goal achievement. Simple courses of action are more readily implemented than are complex courses of action. But two qualifications complicate this apparently common-sense maxim. The first qualification is the unlikely probability that simple solutions can be found which are also instrumentally valid in achieving quite ambitious policy goals. It seems more likely that specified policy means systematically underestimate the complexity of social action actually required for goal achievement. Instrumental validity and simplicity may often be contradictory features of specified policy means.

Finally, as with policy goals, ambiguous or vague specifications of policy actions detract from the likelihood of policy makers' intentions being realized (such vagueness, of course, may be a valuable feature of a policy which someone wishes to pursue for other purposes which they value).

6.2.1.2 Organizational and political context

As Derthick (1976) suggests, there are an unknowable variety of local circumstances viewed from a federal vantage point. Policy implementation is nothing if not context-dependent. Organizational and political contexts provide a "constraining corridor" (Smith, 1973) through which implementation of policy must be forced. This accounts for the dominance of political bargaining models in the implementation literature; it also lends weight to the claim that evaluation is a critical instrument for enhancing policy implementation. But context is an enormously encompassing notion. What should be attended to and what can be safely ignored? Descriptive and explanatory questions about context useful for the evaluation model will focus attention on those aspects of context which bear strongly on the success or failure of implementation. The policy implementation literature which was reviewed suggested five such aspects of organizational context and three aspects of political context.

Resources, leadership "style", planning, performance monitoring and organizational norms, incentives and sanctions were identified as particularly relevant features of the organizational context within which the policy implementor works. With respect to the first of these features, the resources most frequently cited as influencing policy implementation are funds and provision of technical assistance for solving implementation problems. Inadequate resources obviously detract from effective implementation (estimates of adequacy are likely to vary enormously depending upon who is doing the estimating and what they believe to be the intentions of the policy.

Second, the more successful leaders appear to be those who actively initiate and follow through efforts to implement policy (Murphy, 1971; Bardach, 1978), exercise substantial managerial and political skill in overcoming obstacles to effective implementation (Sabatier and Mazmanian, 1979), involve implementors in the development of implementation plans (Melching, 1978), and who clearly delegate responsibilities for implementation tasks (Mechling, 1978).

The quality and nature of planning for policy implementation also affect the success of the implementation effort. Effective planning appears to consist of:

- The clarification and consistent interpretation of long-term implementation goals (Weatherley and Lipsky, 1977; Mechling, 1978; Banfield, 1973),
- Anticipation of significant obstacles to implementation (Chase, 1977; Mechling, 1978),
- Attention to the detailed requirements of the task (Weatherley and Lipsky, 1977; Chase, 1977, Radian and Sharkansky, 1979; Mechling, 1978), and
- Flexibility in the ongoing revision of plans (Mechling, 1978).

Such planning should provide co-ordination for those implementing the policy (Banfield, 1973; Bardach, 1978) and avoid making excessive demands on their time and other resources (Weatherley and Lipsky, 1977).

Policy implementation is influenced by the processes used within the organization for monitoring policy-related performance of implementors. In general, lack of such monitoring processes is associated with limited success in policy implementation. Of course, all forms of implementation monitoring are not equally effective. Effective implementation monitoring processes appear to be characterized by regularity or persistence of application, agreed upon indicators of success, adequate feedback to implementors about their progress, and mechanisms for linking identified obstacles to ongoing, facilitative assistance (Mechling, 1978; Murphy, 1971).

Finally, with respect to organizational context, norms, incentives and sanctions have been reported to significantly affect the nature and degree of implementation (Hargrove and Dean, 1980; Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975; Weatherley and Lipsky, 1977; Murphy, 1971; Mechling, 1978). When these factors press for change, the likelihood of implementation escalates; when they present an indifferent or negative face toward new policy, implementation seems likely to be superficial, at best.

Just as most individuals and groups work within a larger organizational context, organizations reside within a broader, influential socio-political context. So found Weatherley and Lipsky (1977), for example, in their study of special education legislation: "The response of local (school) systems was conditioned in large measure by what happened at the state level following passage of the law". While this appears to overstate even their own case, both the general "political resources" and the specific behaviours of the agency sponsoring the new policy have been shown to effect its implementation. Although it seems that these agencies appear to be relatively impotent in some instances (Derthick, 1976; Banfield, 1973), their power and ability to affect local conditions are the determining factors (Bunker, 1972; Murphy, 1971). Specific behaviours of these agencies that have a demonstrated impact on policy implementation include efforts to clarify the financial resources available for implementation and to monitor compliance with policy, including the possible provision of sanctions for non-compliance (Weatherley and Lipsky, 1977).

The "political" preferences and circumstances of the immediate social environment within which the organization responsible for implementation finds itself also affect implementation. The effect is likely to be negative under conditions of lack of public demand or perceived need for the services provided by policy[8], other conflicting policy initiatives or initiatives which compete for local attention, high levels of organization autonomy, local availability of policy-like resources, lack of support from local elites and earlier negative precedents related to the new policy (Lazin, 1980; Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975; Banfield, 1973; Murphy, 1971; Mechling, 1978; Ingram, 1977; Sabatier and Mazmanian, 1979).

Finally, many studies (e.g., Lazin, 1980) draw attention to the influence on policy implementation of relations between the various organizational components of the institutional context within which implementation takes place. Inter- and intra-organizational relations in the context of policy implementation as frequently described in terms of loose and tight coupling (Weick, 1976; Berman, 1978). Discussions of organizational coupling tend to focus on authority relations in hierarchically ordered bureaucracies, and on the quality and amount of communication between organizational contexts. It is difficult to generalize, however, about the strength of coupling vis-à-vis particular types of organizations, because any organizational system may be loosely coupled in some respects and tightly coupled in others. Rather, the issue for implementation is one of relative tightness or looseness of those organizational linkages which are most directly concerned with the implementation of particular policies. Hence, we regard the influences of organizational coupling on policy implementation as an important yet relatively idiosyncratic feature of both the implementing organization(s) and its relations with the sponsoring agency.

---

[8] Public Policy and Policy Sciences ceased publication in 1981.

6.2.1.3 Interpretation

Our conception of policy implementation indicates that the major sources of guidance for policy-related actions - policy specifications and context - are mediated by the implementor's personal interpretations of their meaning and significance. Indeed, the central explanation for the effect on implementation of those features of policy and context previously identified would seem to be their influence on the interpretive framework of policy implementors and managers or facilitators of policy implementation (e.g., clarity of policy goals reduces implementor's confusion about the intentions of policy).

The critical role of interpretation is clearly recognized in policy implementation research; much is made, for example, of the importance of the implementor's "disposition" (Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975; Majone and Wildavsky, 1978; Bardach, 1978), agreement with policy (Bunker, 1970; Murphy, 1971; Lazin, 1980), commitment to the implementation plan (Mechling, 1978) and "perspective", insomuch as perspective reflects the interests and priorities of particular organizational roles (Pressman and Wildavsky, 1973).

Extant treatments of the role of interpretation, however, offer extremely limited help in the search for powerful variables which cross policy contexts and for hypothesizing about how policy implementation could become more effective. An obvious, but as yet largely unused, instrument for addressing these problems is explicit use of psychological theory (Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975, also draw on such theory). One such formulation, based largely on contemporary information processing (e.g., Newell and Simon, 1972; Calfee, 1981) and social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), is used here to identify descriptive evaluation questions relevant to interpretation.

According to this formulation human behaviour is guided by internalized goals. These goals determine when sensory input will be attended to, direct the processing of information and serve as the foundation for the individual's motivational structure. Together they are commonly referred to as the mind's "Executive". The content of the Executive is socially determined in some substantial but precisely unknown degree. People's goals are a function of aspirations which are adopted relatively independently as well as through the influence of others - for example, those in both organizational and political contexts. According to this conception, then, policy goals are attended to and pursued by an individual only when they become an internalized part of the content of the Executive. Many studies of policy implementation have noted disagreement with the goals of policy, for a variety of reasons, as a cause of policy failure (Bunker, 1972; Bardach, 1978; Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975; Pressman and Wildavsky, 1973).

The Executive permits the transfer of sensory input judged to be relevant into short-term memory for processing; the main purpose of short-term memory is to make sense of sensory input. It attempts to do this by searching through existing cognitive structures stored in long-term memory for clues to meaning, for links to existing relevant knowledge. For the most part, the more links that can be found, the greater sense the individual is able to make of new sensory input. Frequently, finding meaning will also depend on reorganizing existing cognitive structures. Cognitive structures in long-term memory often contain not just information but also an affective disposition toward that information.

Accordingly, people's understandings of policy goals and means, and the implications for their own behaviour are a function of their existing knowledge and affective disposition toward that information. If links can be found with existing structures, policy implementors will be able to understand the intentions of policy. If links are found with existing structures, but those structures evoke negative feelings, the inclination to implement will be significantly reduced. Van Meter and Van Horn's (1975) review notes the direction of implementors' responses to policy and the intensity of that response as frequently cited explanations of policy success or failure.

Affective disposition and "feelings" are part of a person's motivational structure. As already implied, people are driven to achieve internalized goals, although the strength of that drive will vary across individuals. Drive strength is also a function of the goals themselves. Goals judged to be beyond reach are not likely to evoke responses as strong as those judged to be challenging but within reach. Motivational effects, however, appear not to inhere in an individual's goals; rather such effects emerge from the evaluative responses people continuously make to their own behaviour. Emotional reactions are the result of value judgements about the effectiveness of one's actions in achieving desired goals. This explanation of motivation strongly endorses the importance of monitoring procedures discussed as part of organizational context; in the absence of feedback through such procedures, the individual must rely exclusively on personal impressions of how well he or she is achieving. Such impressions may often have limited validity.

6.2.1.4 Actions

Using policy as the yardstick for comparison, the actions of implementors may range from a very close reflection of specifications and intentions to something not recognizably linked to policy at all. Opportunistic, co-optation and drastic mutation are all terms that have been applied to actions of the latter type. But the detailed actions of those ostensibly responsible for policy implementation are the policy in practice, the policy as experienced by its clients; these detailed actions are rarely addressed by policy developers. This is the sense in which Weatherley and Lipsky (1977) have labelled the "street level bureaucrat", a policy maker. At least in loosely coupled organizations, the detailed "accommodations and coping mechanisms" invented by such people to manage conflicting pressures from policy and client groups define the meaning of policy as practised.

Previous analysis of the role of interpretation helps to explain some of the variation in actions relevant to policy implementation. At this point, the inquiry is about other factors which might also figure into the production of such variation. Given the (admittedly rare) circumstances of a clear understanding of policy, a supportive political and organizational context and a positive disposition toward implementation, two other sets of factors appear able to affect the nature of actions taken by implementation agents. One set includes the actions of individual implementation agents without concern for the interdependence of such actions. The second set of factors bears on the co-ordination of actions across agents.

Individual implementors' actions will be fundamentally affected by their capacity; knowledge and skills in management, evaluation, program development and interpersonal communication, identifying obstacles to implementation, detailed planning and others have been designated as part of the capacity needed for effective policy implementation (Murphy, 1971; Melching, 1978; Smith, 1973; Chase, 1979; Banfield, 1973). Capacity, in turn, is a function of knowledge and skill, and is substantially influenced by the complexity of an action. Implementors may know what needs to be done, but not know how to do it; individualizing instruction in a mainstream, regular classroom as a way of responding to special education policy would be an example of this. Implementors may know how to do something, but not have sufficient skill to carry out the procedure; for example, individualizing instruction in reading by grouping children according to learning styles and providing an appropriate form of instruction for each group. In instances such as these, implementors know of a means for achieving their chosen goal. But this is not always the case: for some goals, no one may have the know-how required for their achievement, a rather more serious impediment to capacity.

The likelihood of an implementor possessing the required capacity for carrying out policy implementation functions will vary with the complexity of the required knowledge and skill. But it is the "psychological" complexity of the implementor's functions that matters. Such functions may be highly complex, in an objective sense; they require, for example, many actions to be performed and their performance depends on a significant background of relevant knowledge. But these actions may be quite manageable for implementors possessing the relevant knowledge and with experience in carrying out similar actions. It is the subjective complexity of proposed courses of action that influences the nature of actions undertaken to implement policy.

In some cases of policy implementation, success depends on more than individual action, or even all the agents in an implementor role (say the teacher), to "get it right". The space between the legislature and the "street" or classroom is crowded. Each person in the crowd may act to influence outcomes in some measure. But benefits to the policy client depend minimally on the effects of these actions not cancelling out one another. More typically, ambitious policy goals depend for their achievement on the effect of actions taken by one set of implementors building cumulatively on those of another.

Pressman and Wildavsky (1973), Chase (1979), Banfield (1973), and Bardach (1976) have all been impressed with not only the necessity but also the complexity of joint action. In a well-known example of public works policy implementation, Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) estimated a total of some thirty decision points requiring a total of seventy agreements among agents. Assuming an 80 per cent probability of favourable action taken at each decision point by each participant, they calculated the chances of completion ("full implementation") after seventy agreements of a little over one in a million. Chances fell below 50 per cent after just four agreements!

It seems likely that policy implementation will be significantly affected by the degree of homogeneity or co-ordination of action across implementor roles.

6.2.1.5 Outcomes

Majone and Wildavsky (1978) have suggested that the possibilities of a policy idea can only be fully known after implementation has occurred, after many minds and many trials have explored the possibilities. This point of view dominates the conceptual and empirical research which were reviewed. Only advocates of systems management or control models of organizational change seriously propose that outcomes advocated in policy and those achieved in practice ought to be largely the same. In fact, the evidence arguing that actual outcomes are likely to deviate from but be related to policy goals or be largely unpredictable favour the latter option by a two-to-one margin.

Actual outcomes are not a function of policy, context or interpretation; they are a function of actions taken by implementors, to the extent that policy-related factors bear on them at all. Yet the minimum specifications of realistic action contained in policy, enormous variations in political and organizational contexts, and the individualized nature of interpretations of policy and context necessitate and guarantee a wide range of action within each implementation agent role. Given typical policies and implementation practices, there is no justification for expecting a close relationship between policy goals and actual outcomes.

Should one expect to find modest links between policy expectations and actual outcomes? Berman (1978) reports such results in implementing program innovations among a sample of three hundred projects, under conditions of systematic, local policy adaptation. He, as well as Melching (1978) and Chase (1979), for example, inquired about the nature of conditions which have this result. Their nature includes detailed analyses of probable obstacles to implementation and careful planning of strategies to overcome such obstacles.

It appears, in sum, that under no set of conditions likely to be realistically met in practice would one normally expect full realization of policy outcomes. Under circumstances best explained by lack of careful attention to the implementation process, the probability of achieving policy outcomes is a bit better than chance and depends largely on the existing practices and dispositions of agents involved. As Weatherley and Lipsky (1977) show in their analysis of service provision to some sets of special students as a result of policy implementation, actual outcomes may be the reverse of policy intentions. When systematic, sustained attention is given to resolving implementation problems, "generically related" variations on outcomes, aspired to by the policy, are quite likely.

6.2.2 A Comparison of Research Results from Educational and Non-Educational Settings[9]

Using the model described in Section 6.2.1 for direction, a review of educational research literature was undertaken to further elaborate on the model. Because little educational research appeared to be available concerning policy implementation, we also reviewed research on program implementation change and innovation.

A manual search of the following journals was undertaken: Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, Alberta Journal of Educational Administration, Educational Leadership, Educational Administration Quarterly, Review of Educational Research, American Educational Research Journal, Administrative Science Quarterly, and Knowledge: creation, diffusion and utilization. A search of the ERIC system was conducted using the descriptor program implementation paired with policy implementation as a free-text term. This combination was used along with a set of descriptors consisting of change agents, change strategies, intervention, school organization, educational change, and teacher administrator relationships. A search of Dissertation Abstracts was conducted using the descriptor educational administration and program implementation. A search of the policy sciences and politics of education indexes in the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education Library was also conducted. Together these searches yielded forty-one articles considered relevant to the present study.

Two sets of criteria were used to select the most relevant studies for the literature review. First, a study had to provide empirical data and a methodology that was interpretable from the written report of the research. Second, the studies which passed this criterion had to meet one or more of the following criteria: (a) principals had to be part of the subjects sampled; (b) principals had to be a direct part of the dependent or independent variables; and (c) the results of the study had to contain reference to a factor or factors that might influence principals' behaviour in the implementation process. This latter criterion was applied because of our special interests in the school administrator's role. Using these criteria, the forty-one studies initially identified for review were reduced to seventeen. Methodogical characteristics of these studies are summarized in Table 6-1.

6.2.2.1 Methodological characteristics of the empirical studies

Consideration of the methodological characteristics of the seventeen studies provides a critical overview of the literature and allows for an assessment of the confidence that may be placed in their collective results.

---

9. This section is based substantially on Trider (1985).

With respect to design, ten studies were surveys, six were case studies, including one longitudinal case study, and one was an experiment. In most cases the label used to describe the design was assigned by the original investigator. The term "experiment" (deCharms, 1977) denoted the existence of a control group and an experimental group; "case study", an observation period of approximately one school year; and "longitudinal case study", an observation period approximating six years. The term "survey" was applied to a study relying on a single collection of opinion data from a relatively large sample of respondents (N = 140 to 1,555) using a questionnaire.

Subjects from whom data were collected included principals in one study, teachers alone in four studies, teachers and students in one study, central office personnel alone in one study, principals and teachers alone or with other field workers in four studies, principals and teachers along with superordinates to principals and other field workers in four studies, project director and worker in one study and, in one instance, the innovations themselves were the subject for data collection.

Thirteen studies sampled from five to 1,761 individuals. Three studies described their sample as the school or the school district, and one study sampled two Grade 4 classes. Only four studies employed techniques of random sampling; this raises the possibility of sampling bias within the studies and threatens the generalizability or external validity of the results.

Data were collected through questionnaires only in six studies, and documents only in three studies; both of these provided self-report data, a form of data relied on in approximately 50 per cent of the studies. Five of the remaining studies collected multiple forms of data that included some combination of participant observation, interviews, documents, and/or questionnaire. In two studies the researcher used a field study approach with one of these also employing participant observation techniques.

One consideration governing the confidence to be placed in the results of these studies rests with the various definitions of the dependent variables found among the studies. The degree of adoption or implementation of innovations was the dependent variable in four studies (Parish and Arends, 1983; Porter, 1980; Aslin and DeArman, 1976; and Henderson, 1975). The remaining studies considered slightly different aspects of implementation including:

- Intervention during implementation (Hall, Rutherford, and Griffin, 1982),
- The sphere of administrative influence (Clear and Seager, 1971),
- The problems of implementation (Charters and Pellegrin, 1972),
- The identified stages of concern used by change facilitators (Rutherford, Hall, and Newlove, n.d.),

- The innovativeness of the district (Hughes, 1968),

- Perceived principal effectiveness by subordinates, superordinates, and innovation effect (Miskel, 1977),

- Classroom innovation by the teacher (Stephens, 1974), and

- School behaviour of children (deCharms, 1977).

One study (Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982) used school improvement efforts of principals in a study of obstacles faced by principals. These dependent variables range from being quite close to the dependent variable in the present study (e.g., degree of implementation of an innovation) to quite unlike it (e.g., classroom innovation by the teacher).

6.2.2.2 Results

A comparison of the results of these empirical studies, done in the context of education systems, with the more detailed findings presented in Section 6.2.1 helps determine the level of confidence that may be ascribed to identified factors. Two strong correspondences are evident between the results presented in Section 6.2.1 and results of studies reviewed in Section 6.2.2. First, there is strong agreement about the importance and nature of *policy specification* factors in both sets of studies. Second, both sets identify a large list of *organizational and political context* factors. In addition, almost all of the context factors identified in Section 6.2.1 are identified by two or more empirical studies carried out in the context of educational systems.

The third major category contained in the model presented in Section 6.2.1, Interpretation, was defined as the implementor's disposition agreement with policy and commitment to the implementation plan. In reviewing the empirical studies in education from this perspective, it was evident that these kinds of influences were themselves influenced by context. For example, a principal's agreement or disagreement with a policy may be influenced by staff members or the community. With this in mind, factors associated with Interpretation, as presented in Section 6.2.1, might better be labelled *personal context* factors.

Table 6-2 outlines the results of comparing studies presented in Section 6.2.1 with those reviewed in Section 6.2.2. There is considerable agreement among the studies themselves. Five studies identified *personal context factors*, ten identified *organizational factors* and *political factors*, and eight identified *policy specifications*.

An examination of the detailed results of two studies reviewed in Section 6.2.2 allows for a more elaborate description of the factors influencing policy implementation, in particular, the policy implementation behaviour of principals. Table 6-3 reports the results of this analysis, in some detail.

6.3 CONCLUSION

This two-part review resulted in the identification of more than 70 factors which have the potential for influencing the policy implementation process. Data provided by this body of research, however, provide little guidance in determining the relative influence of these factors on the implementation process. Nor do the data reveal much concerning sources of variation in the influence of factors: variables such as the implementor's role, the nature and size of the organization, knowledge of the policy, conditions of the factor and the like are plausible sources of such variation. Further understanding of the policy implementation process would seem to depend on an exploration of these variables.

Table 6-1: Methodological Characteristics of Original Empirical Studies Reviewed

Design	Subjects	Sample Size	Source/ Instrument	Sampling Procedure	Results[10]
Aslin and DeArman (1976)					
Case study	School innovations	33 schools	documents	selected	S, C
Baldridge and Burnham (1975) - 2 studies					
Survey	District superintendents, Principals, Teachers	Study 1: 1,137 individuals Study 2: 264 districts	interview, questionnaire	50% random	S
Berman and McLauglin (1978)					
Survey field/case study	Superintendents, Principals, Teachers, Fed. Prog. managers, Project directors	294 559 1,761 191 293	documents interviews, observations	selected innovation projects	S, C
Charters and Pellegrin (1972)					
Case study	Teachers, Administrators, staff members	4 districts, schools (2E, 1JH, 1SH)	participant observation documents, interviews, questionnaire	selected	S, C
Clear and Seager (1971)					
Survey	Teachers, Administrators: - principals - vice-principals - supervisors	123 17	questionnaire	selected	C
deCharms (1977)					
Experiment	Teachers, students	2 Grade 5 classes (1 control 1 experimental)	motivation achievement measures	selected	S

---

[10] Results: S = Specifications; C = Context

Table 6-1, continued

Design	Subjects	Sample Size	Source/ Instrument	Sampling Procedure	Results
Hall, Rutherford, and Griffin (1982)					
Longitudinal study	Principals	9	field study	reputational	C case
Henderson (1975)					
Survey	Teachers of Grades 1, 2, and 3	1,246	questionnaire	random selection	C
Hughes (1968)					
Survey	Central office personnel	24 districts with min. 5 each - 140	questionnaire	selected	C
Kunz and Hoy (1974)					
Survey	Teachers from 50 secondary schools	500	questionnaire	random for schools & & teachers	C
Leithwood and Montgomery (1982)					
Survey	Principals,	65	questionnaire, interviews	total population of elem. school and Sr. admin. staff	S, C
	Sr. admin. staff	15			
Miskel (1977)					
Survey	Superordinates,	41	questionnaire	randomly selected principals and teachers, selected superordinates	C
	Principals,	234			
	Teachers	1,280			

Table 6-1, continued

Design	Subjects	Sample Size	Source/ Instrument	Sampling Procedure	Results
Parish and Arends (1983)					
Survey	Teachers Administrators	5 school districts	n/a	selected	S, C
Porter (1980)					
Survey	Project director and worker	207	documents	selected	S, C
Reynolds (1974)					
Case study	Elementary teachers	1 school	field study, participant observation	selected	S, C
Rutherford, Hall, and Newlove (n.d.)					
Longitudinal case study reputation	Elementary principals	9	documents by	selected	C
Stephens (1974)					
Survey	Teachers	412 (14 schools - 12E, 1JH, 1SH)	questionnaire	selected 8 innovative 6 traditional	C

Table 6-2: Correspondence of the results of the empirical studies with the results of the literature review by Leithwood and Anderson (1983)

Factors Identified by Leithwood and Anderson	Empirical Studies Identifying Similar Factors
Personal Context	
o Stage of concern of the change facilitator	Rutherford, Hall, and Newlove (n.d.)
o Teacher training and the ability of teachers to engage in the process	Charters and Pellegrin (1972); Leithwood and Montgomery 1982) implementation
o Principals' perceptions of their role	Leithwood and Montgomery (1982); Hall, Rutherford, and Griffin (1982)
o Adopters' definition of the problem	Reynolds (1974)
o The needs of students as perceived principal	Leithwood and Montgomery (1982) by the
o Principals' personal values and priorities	Leithwood and Montgomery (1982)
o The energy level of the principal	Leithwood and Montgomery (1982)
Organizational and Political Context	
o Resources	Porter (1980); Charters and Pellegrin (1972); Leithwood and Montgomery (1982)
o Leadership Style	Charters and Pellegrin (1972)
o Planning	Parish and Arends (1983); Porter (1980) Charters and Pellegrin (1972); Berman and McLaughlin (1978)
o Performance monitoring and organization norms	Charters and Pellegrin (1972); Leithwood and Montgomery (1982); Hall, Rutherford, and Griffin (1982)
o Incentives and sanctions	Stephens (1974)
o Behaviour of the sponsoring agency	Hughes (1968); Henderson (1975)
o Immediate social environment of the organization	Parish and Arends (1983); Leithwood and Montgomery (1982)
o Relations between the components the organization	Hughes (1968); Henderson (1975) within
o Political clout behind the organization	Baldridge and Burnham (1975)

Table 6-2, continued

Factors Identified by Leithwood and Anderson	Empirical Studies Identifying Similar Factors
Policy Specifications	
° Clarity of written documents	Porter (1980); Charters and Pellegrin (1972); Leithwood and Montgomery (1982)
° Stated actions for goals achievement	Porter (1980); Aslin and DeArman (1976); Reynolds (1974); Leithwood and Montgomery (1982); Berman and McLaughlin (1978); Hall, Rutherford, and Griffin (1982)
° Level of aspiration and impact on institution	Parish and Arends (1983); Porter (1980); Aslin and DeArman (1976); Berman and McLaughlin (1978); Leithwood and Montgomery (1982)

Table 6-3: Detailed description of the factors influencing the implementation behaviour of principals as found in the empirical studies

---

Contexts

1. Personal factors

Contributing studies: Hall, Rutherford, and Griffin (1982); Reynolds (1974); Rutherford, Hall and Newlove (n.d.); Charters and Pellegrin (1972); Leithwood and Montgomery (1982).

1.1 Stage of concern of the change facilitator (Principal)

1.2 Assumptions pertaining to the teacher's training and ability to engage in the implementation process.

1.3 Principal's perception of his/her role.

1.4 Adopter's definition of the problems.

2. Organizational factors

Contributing studies: Parish and Arends (1982); Charters and Pellegrin (1972); Stephens (1974); Kunz and Hoy (1976); Porter (1980); Clear and Seager (1971); Aslin and DeArman (1976); Berman and McLaughlin (1978); Reynolds (1974); Leithwood and Montgomery (1982).

2.1 Resources - funding, time, personnel.

2.2 Planning - co-operative, on-line.

2.3 Adequately trained personnel.

2.4 A reward system consisting of morale, work, achievement and satisfaction.

2.5 Managing and monitoring procedures are initiated, management control will prevent distortion of goals.

3. Political factors

Contributing studies: Aslin and DeArman (1976); Baldridge and Burnham (1974); Berman and McLaughlin (1978); Hall, Rutherford, and Griffin (1982); Hughes (1968); Henderson (1975); Miskel (1977)

3.1 Support of local administration.

3.2 Central office climate regarding innovation.

3.3 Technology level of the school district.

3.4 Demographic factors of the school.

3.5 Complexity of the organization.

3.6 Relationship between the structure and the environment.

3.7 Lack of awareness of the impact of the change on the "basic mission" of the organization.

Table 6-3, continued

3.8 Conflict over the relative importance of the goals.

3.9 Adoption based upon the principal's context.

3.10 Teachers' zone of acceptance and administration.

3.11 Understanding people, communities, and cultures.

Policy Specifications

1. Clearly articulated program objectives

Contributing studies: Aslin and DeArman (1976); Porter (1980); Charter and Pellegrin (1972); Reynolds (1974); Berman and McLaughlin (1978); Parish and Arends (1983); Leithwood and Montgomery (1982)

1.1 Objectives are easily understood by others.

1.2 Objectives are easily translated into appropriate behaviour patterns.

1.3 The purpose of the project is clearly defined.

1.4 The impact of the "basic mission" of the institution.

2. Implementation strategy

Contributing studies: Berman and McLaughlin (1978); Porter (1980); Aslin and DeArman (1976); Hall, Rutherford, and Griffin (1982); Reynolds (1974).

2.1 The implementation strategy is stated within the policy document.

2.2 The implementation strategy is easily understood.

2.3 Managing and monitoring procedures are stated in order to assure implementation.

2.4 Provision is made for appropriate local choices in the implementation process.

2.5 Allows the teacher easy access to needed materials.

2.6 Strategy is compatible with differing styles of leadership.

2.7 Possess a motivational tone in its written format.

3. Complexity of the innovation

Contributing studies: Aslin and DeArman (1976); Charters and Pellegrin (1972); Baldridge and Burnham (1975); Leithwood and Montgomery (1982)

3.1 The innovation is easy to administer.

3.2 The policy specifications allow for teacher direction more so than administrative direction.

Table 6-3, continued

4. Structural changes

Contributing studies: Charters and Pellegrin (1972); Baldridge and Burnham (1975).

4.1 Accompany the policy

4.2 Delineates responsibilities for staff

4.3 Policy contains specific job descriptions for key actors.

4.4 Policy provides a temporary structure compatible with the present administrative structure.

4.5 The necessary specialist assistance is made available by the policy.

Chapter 7

METHODS

The following tasks were carried out to answer the research questions and meet the general purposes of the study:

- The factors identified in the literature review and the results reported in Trider (1985) were used as the basis for the development of a survey instrument.

- School boards, with secondary schools, were divided by region, religion and size, and a proportional number were randomly selected to be invited to participate in the survey. Letters inviting participation were mailed to the directors of education of 53 school boards.

- The survey instrument was mailed to approximately 250 secondary school principals associated with participating school boards.

- Survey returns from 159 principals were entered into a data file and analysed using the standard statistical packages provided by SPSS Inc. (1983).

- Open-ended responses and additional comments were recorded by hand and included in the analysis wherever possible.

7.1 THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

The survey instrument (see Appendix A) consisted of five parts:

A. Respondents were asked to select from among four types of actions which could have been taken in response to a specific aspect of the implementation of OSIS policies. The response categories were selected from interviews with secondary school principals to represent three different action orientations (see Leithwood, 1986):

   - the Administrator orientation
   - the Humanitarian orientation
   - the Program Manager orientation

   A fourth response category, "Other", was included to gather additional open-ended information.

B. Respondents were asked to report on the degree to which OSIS policies had been implemented in their school, how they rated the importance of such implementation activities, and when they first took steps to initiate these policies.

C. Respondents were asked to rate 27 factors which were perceived as having a potential influence on implementation activities.

Tables 6-2 and 6-3 (Chapter 6) indicate that some of the factors which influence implementation activities were isolated by Leithwood and Anderson (1983), Trider (1985), and Trider and Leithwood (in press). Trider (1985) developed a questionnaire which included 71 factors and surveyed principals with regard to their implementation activities related to Bill 82. For this study, 27 of these 71 factors were selected as those found by Trider to be the most significant in influencing implementation activities with one exception. The factor rated most highly in the Trider study - "Your experiences in the educational system" - was inadvertently omitted from the final draft of the questionnaire for this study.

Respondents were asked to rate the favourableness or condition of the factor "early in the implementation process" and "at present". This rating was made on a five-point scale - non-existent to more than sufficient.

Respondents were also asked to rate the extent to which each factor influenced their actions "early in the process" and "at present". This rating was made on a five-point scale - strongly negative to strongly positive.

D. Respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which they perceived differences, if any, between policy statements in Circular HS1 and Circular OSIS by rating such differences on a five-point scale - strongly disagree (with stated comparison) to strongly agree.

Respondents were also asked to rate the importance of the component described in the comparison statement on a five-point scale - not important to very important.

E. Respondents were asked to provide basic demographic data about themselves - age, sex, years as a secondary principal, years at present school, percentage teaching time - and about their school - grades taught in school, enrolment, numbers of vice-principals, department heads, teachers and other staff, and language of instruction. No data was gathered on the size of the school board, an omission which is to be regretted.

7.2 SELECTION OF SCHOOL BOARDS

The Directory of Education, 1985/86 (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1985) was used to divide school boards with secondary schools by region, religion, and size. Regions corresponded to those used by the Ministry of Education - Northwestern, Midnorthern, Northeastern, Western, Central, and Eastern. Religion was determined on the basis of public and Roman Catholic separate school boards[11]. Board size was determined by counting the number of secondary schools listed for each board:

---

[11] The only Protestant separate school board does not operate a secondary school.

- Those with three or fewer secondary schools were classified as small boards;

- Those with four to nine secondary schools were classified as medium-sized school boards;

- Those with ten or more secondary schools were classified as large school boards.

It should be noted that determining the number of secondary schools in Roman Catholic separate school boards was made more difficult by:

- The fact that the directory only reports on schools in such boards up to Grade 11;

- A number of unreported secondary schools existed in RCSS boards as school services were expanded during the 1985-86 school year following changes in funding policies.

Table 7-1 indicates the number of school boards classified by region, religion, and size, the number selected for inclusion in the sample, the number responding favourably and included in the mailed survey, and the number of principals who received a copy of the questionnaire.

Letters inviting boards to participate in the survey were sent to the directors of education of 53 boards (see Appendix B). Each letter was accompanied by a list of the secondary schools and their principals which had been identified by the research team for that board. The director was asked to indicate whether the board would permit us to contact secondary school principals directly and to correct the list of schools and principals as appropriate. Forty-five responded positively and were included in the survey. Four additional boards responded favourably but not in time to be included in the mailed survey.

Questionnaires, with a covering letter (see Appendix C), were mailed to 259 principals. Responses from 159 principals, or 61 per cent of the sample, were received and included in the data analysis.

Table 7-1: Distribution and Selection of Survey Sample

Region/ Religion	Large Boards	Medium Boards	Small Boards	TOTAL
NORTHWESTERN REGION:				
Public Boards	0	1	8	9
- selected	0	1	2	3
- number of boards included	1	1	1	3
- number of principals	10	3	1	14
RCSS Boards	0	1	6	7
- selected	0	1	1	2
- number of boards included	0	0	2	2
- number of principals	0	0	3	3
MIDNORTHERN REGION:				
Public Boards	1	1	7	9
- selected	1	1	4	6
- number of boards included	1	1	4	6
- number of principals	16	7	5	28
RCSS Boards	1	1	4	6
- selected	1	1	1	3
- number of boards included	0	1	1	2
- number of principals	0	2	2	4
NORTHEASTERN REGION:				
Public boards	0	6	5	11
- selected	0	2	2	4
- number of boards included	0	2	2	4
- number of principals	0	7	2	9
RCSS Boards	0	5	2	7
- selected	0	2	1	3
- number of boards included	0	0	3	3
- number of principals	0	0	4	4
WESTERN REGION:				
Public Boards	1	11	0	12
- selected	1	4	0	5
- number of boards included	1	4	0	5
- number of principals	15	22	0	37
RCSS Boards	0	7	2	9
- selected	0	2	1	3
- number of boards included	0	3	0	3
- number of principals	0	9	0	9

Table 7-1, continued

Region/ Religion	Large Boards	Medium Boards	Small Boards	TOTAL
CENTRAL REGION:				
Public Boards	16	9	3	28
- selected	5	3	1	9
- number of boards included	3	2	0	5
- number of principals	50	16	0	66
RCSS Boards	9	5	1	15
- selected	3	2	1	6
- number of boards included	1	0	3	4
- number of principals	31	0	6	37
EASTERN REGION:				
Public Boards	2	7	1	10
- selected	1	3	1	5
- number of boards included	2	1	2	5
- number of principals	34	6	4	44
RCSS Boards	2	4	1	7
- selected	1	2	1	4
- number of boards included	0	0	3	3
- number of principals	0	0	4	4
TOTAL				
Public Boards	20	35	24	79
- selected	8	14	10	32
- number of boards included	8	11	9	28
- number of principals	125	61	12	198
RCSS Boards	12	23	16	51
- selected	5	10	6	21
- number of boards included	1	4	12	17
- number of principals	31	11	19	61

7.3 THE DATA FILE

As questionnaires were returned, the data from each was entered into a datafile on the VAX mainframe computer using the PENTRY program. Each case was identified using a three-digit code and included 181 variables. About nine cases could not be used in the analysis procedures and were identified as missing cases. Most respondents answered all the questions on the instrument, thus providing a basic file of approximately 150 useable cases for most analysis procedures.

Some recoding was done to assist in an examination of the independent variables.

- Age was coded into eight categories ranging from 26 to 30 years to 60 years and over. No principals under age 36 years responded to the questionnaire.

- Number of years as a secondary principal was recoded into three categories:
  - 1 to 5 years;
  - 6 to 10 years; and
  - 11 years or more.

- School enrolment was recoded into three categories:
  - up to 500 students;
  - 501 to 1000 students; and
  - over 1000 students.

- Orientation of activities related to OSIS implementation was recoded into three categories based on responses to questions 1 through 5 (see Table 3-2):
  - those whose mean scores fell between 1.0 and 1.8 were categorized as using an Administrator orientation;
  - those whose mean scores fell between 2.0 and 2.75 were categorized as using a Humanitarian orientation; and
  - those whose mean scores were above 2.8 were categorized as using a Program Manager orientation.

- The factors outlined in Part C of the questionnaire were recoded into four clusters (numbers refer to the order of items on the survey form) to conduct some of the statistical analyses.
  - four were related to Personal Context factors (6, 11, 12, and 20). One highly influential personal context factor (as identified by Trider, 1985) was omitted from the survey instrument. This factor was: Your experiences in the educational system.
  - ten were related to Political and Organizational Context factors 2, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 21, 23, and 26) which reside largely within the school.
  - eleven were related to Political and Organizational Context factors (1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 22, 24, and 27) which reside largely within the school system, particularly the central office.
  - two were related to Policy Specification factors (16 and 25).

- Individual responses to the factors in Part C of the instrument were combined to create a total value for the condition of the factor (condition early in the process + condition at present) and a total value for the influence of the factor (influence early in the process, influence at present).

Further re-organization of the data is possible and can be used as part of any secondary analyses to be conducted at a later date.

7.4 THE DATA ANALYSIS

The following tests were completed using the standard statistical packages provided by SPSS (1983).

- FREQUENCIES, with means and standard deviations, were calculated for all variables separately. Only those relevant to the discussion of the results are included.

- CROSSTABS, with Chi-square, were calculated on the following:

  - age with orientation and combined influence of clustered factors;
  - sex with orientation and combined influence of clustered factors;
  - years as secondary principal with orientation and combined influence of clustered factors;
  - size of school with orientation and combined influence of clustered factors; and
  - orientation to OSIS implementation with age, sex, years as secondary principal, size of school, combined influence of factors, and combined influence of clustered factors.

- ONEWAY, an analysis of variance procedure which also calculated homogeneity of variance on the pairwise comparison of groups, was calculated using the following independent (first listed) and dependent variables:

  - age with combined influence of factors and combined influence of clustered factors;
  - sex with combined influence of factors and combined influence of clustered factors;
  - years as secondary principal with combined influence of factors and combined influence of clustered factors;
  - size of school with combined influence of factors and combined influence of clustered factors; and
  - orientation to OSIS implementation with combined influence of factors, combined influence of clustered factors, agreement/disagreement with OSIS policy statements (Part D), and importance of OSIS policy statements (Part D).

- T-TESTS were calculated to compare the means of responses on the factors in Part C as follows:

  - the condition (favourableness) of the factor "early in process" compared to the condition "at present";
  - the influence of factor "early in process" compared to the influence "at present";
  - the total condition of the factor compared to the total influence of the factor; and

- the extent of OSIS implementation (question 10, Part B) compared with the combined condition of the factor and with the combined influence of the factor.

° PEARSON CORRELATIONS were calculated to determine the relationships, if any, among the four responses made for each factor in Part C.

Table 7-2: Basis for Identifying Principal's Dominant Orientation to OSIS Implementation Tasks

	Dominant Orientation		
Basic Task in Implementation	Program Manager	Humanitarian	Administrator
Modification and implementation of at advanced, general and basic levels.	I work with teachers and/or dept. heads in modifying and implementing courses of study.	I actively initiate and supervise the modification and implementation of courses of study.	I am not actively involved in courses modifying and implementing courses of study - staff committee completes this.
Introduction of courses to meet compulsory credit requirements.	I accept this as part of my responsibility but expect other staff members to assist in the task.	I assume full responsibility for seeing that courses are introduced to meet compulsory credit requirements.	I delegate this responsibility to others.
Development and implementation of co-operative programs.	I worked with a committee drawn from all departments in the school and various community groups to develop such practices.	I developed these practices for our school and expect teachers and department heads to follow them.	I encouraged teachers to work out such practices at the department level.
Work with teachers help them understand, accept, and implement OSIS policies in the classroom.	I work with staff to develop plans for implementing and periodically monitoring the results.	I collaborated with dept. heads to help them resolve problems their staff were experiencing in implementing the policy.	I provided staff to with copies of the policy and told them to be sure to implement those aspects which were relevant to them.
Preparation of a student code of behaviour.	I worked with a committee composed of parents, students, and teachers to prepare this code.	I prepared a code of student behaviour with some input from vice-principals and dept. heads.	I assigned the task of preparing a code of student behaviour to a staff member and gave assistance when necessary.

Chapter 8

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter describes the sample of principals who responded to the questionnaire and reports the results of the survey for each research question and the conclusions drawn from these results. First, an independent summary and analysis of the data from this study is provided. Then the differences between the results of this study and those from Trider and Leithwood (in press) are discussed and possible reasons for the differences that emerged are offered. Answers to questions 6 and 7 are reported for this study only since no comparable data or issues were addressed by Trider and Leithwood (in press).

8.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

8.1.1 The Principals

The 159 respondents included in this analysis had the following characteristics:

Sex:

Male	88.7%
Female	11.3%

Age:

36 - 40 years	8.7%
41 - 45 years	16.8%
46 - 50 years	32.9%
51 - 55 years	29.5%
56 - 60 years	9.4%
60 years and over	2.7%

Area of Curriculum Specialization:

Languages (English, French, français, other)	24.4%
Social Studies (History, Geography)	18.7%
Mathematics	15.6%
Sciences	7.5%
Guidance	3.8%
Business or Technical	3.2%
Physical Education	1.9%
Other	1.8%
Not reported	23.0%

Number of Years Teaching:

11 - 15 years	3.3%
16 - 20 years	15.9%
21 - 25 years	33.1%
26 - 30 years	26.5%
31 - 35 years	18.6%
36 years or more	2.7%
Mean	25.5 years

Number of Years with Present Board:

1 - 5 years	8.2%
6 - 10 years	7.0%
11 - 15 years	8.2%
16 - 20 years	25.4%
21 - 25 years	24.6%
26 - 30 years	16.3%
31 years or more	10.3%
Mean	20.1 years

Number of Years at Present School:

1 - 5 years	50.0%
6 - 10 years	29.8%
11 - 20 years	15.2%
21 - 28 years	4.9%
Mean	7.2 years

Number of Years as Secondary Principal:

1 - 5 years	44.9%
6 - 10 years	23.8%
11 - 15 years	23.0%
16 - 20 years	6.9%
21 - 24 years	1.4%
Mean	7.9 years

Number of Years as Elementary Principal:

None	86.8%
1 - 5 years	8.3%
6 - 10 years	1.8%
11 years and more	3.1%

Amount of Time Spent Teaching:

None	88.7%
10 - 15%	5.5%
16 - 20%	3.1%
21 - 50%	2.6%

In summary, the majority of respondents were males over 46 years of age, who do not teach and who have no experience as principals in the elementary panel. Respondents had curriculum expertise in all areas of the secondary curriculum, the majority in languages, mathematics, and social studies. The majority had taught for 21 years or more and had been a secondary principal for less than 8 years, with their present board 16 years or more, and at their present school fewer than 6 years.

8.1.2 The Schools

The 159 schools represented in the sample had the following characteristics:

Student Enrolment:

30 - 250 students	7.3%
251 - 500 students	18.7%
501 - 750 students	14.7%
751 - 1000 students	32.0%

1001 - 1250 students	15.3%
1251 - 1500 students	6.7%
1501 students or more	5.3%
Mean	827 Students

Number of Vice-principals:

1 vice-principal	55.1%
2 vice-principals	42.8%
3 or more vice-principals	2.1%

Department Heads:

1 - 5 department heads	7.8%
6 - 10 department heads	27.7%
11 - 15 department heads	55.3%
16 or more department heads	9.2%
Mean	12 Heads

Teachers:

1 - 10 teachers	5.4%
11 - 20 teachers	8.1%
21 - 30 teachers	15.6%
31 - 40 teachers	17.5%
41 - 50 teachers	23.0%
51 - 60 teachers	14.2%
61 - 70 teachers	6.7%
71 - 80 teachers	5.4%
81 or more teachers	4.1%
Mean	43 Teachers

Other Professional Staff:

None reported	55.5%
1 - 2 persons	22.5%
3 - 4 persons	15.1%
5 - 7 persons	5.0%
12 - 15 persons	1.9%

In summary, the majority of schools represented in the sample had an average of 827 students, 1 or 2 vice-principals, 12 department heads, 43 teachers, and no other professional staff.

8.1.3 Implementation of OSIS

Respondents were asked to provide some basic information on OSIS implementation from their own perspective, and at the school and board levels. The following summarizes this information:

Actions taken to Implement OSIS:

Responses to question 1 through 5 (Part A of the survey instrument) in the "Other" category were summarized. The major features of these results include:

- Between 10 and 20 per cent of principals reported that co-operative education programs were developed and administered by co-operative education co-ordinators at either the school or board level.

- About 10 per cent of principals reported that their co-operative education program was in the initial stages of being organized.

- One principal reported that the school's code of student behaviour was validated using a random sample of 200 parents and 200 students (40 per cent of the student population) and the full staff.

- Many principals reported they had held special meetings for parents of Grade 8 and 9 students; had met with Grade 8 students and teachers of feeder schools; and had organized special in-service sessions for their own staff.

- Several principals reported that they were experimenting with partial credits and modified timetables to allow students to take more than 8 credits in one school year. Modifications to timetables were also being introduced to allow for part-time enrolment and more extensive co-operative education programs.

- Many principals reported that they had worked in co-operation with the staff of student guidance services to develop: information packages for students and parents, course registration forms and program plans to reduce "front-end loading" of compulsory credits, school-wide student evaluation policies, plans to deal with the new substitution policy, school guidance services, and the like.

Principal's Knowledge of OSIS Requirements:

Respondents were asked to rate their knowledge of the requirements of OSIS and related regulations developed by the school board on a scale from "1 = Extensive" to "4 = Very Low". The mean rating was 1.4, the mode was 1.0 and no respondent rated his or her knowledge as low as 4.

Importance of Implementing Requirements:

Respondents were asked to rate the importance they attached to the implementation of these requirements in their schools on a scale from "1 = Very Important" to "4 = Not Important". The mean rating was 1.3, the mode was 1.0 and no respondent rated the importance of implementing these requirements as low as 4.

Current Priorities for Action:

Respondents were asked to rate where the implementation of OSIS requirements fit into their own priorities for action in school this year on a scale from "1 = Top Priority" to "4 =

Not a Priority". The mean rating was 1.7, the mode was 2.0 and no respondent rated the current priority of OSIS as low as 4.

Extent of Implementation:

Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they believed that OSIS requirements and related regulations had been implemented in their schools on a scale from "1 = Fully" to "4 = Not at All". The mean rating was 1.6, the mode was 1.0, and no respondent rated the extent of OSIS implementation as low as 4.

Start Date for OSIS Implementation:

Respondents were asked to report both the date when action was taken to prepare for OSIS implementation at the board level and at the school level. The following dates were reported:

Board Start Date		School Start Date	
January - June 1982	3.1%	January - June 1982	--
July - December 1982	4.4%	July - December 1982	2.6%
January - June 1983	10.8%	January - June 1983	6.8%
July - December 1983	23.7%	July - December 1983	30.7%
January - June 1984	13.9%	January - June 1984	14.5%
July - December 1984	17.0%	July - December 1984	26.3%
January - June 1985	0.6%	January - June 1985	2.5%
July - December 1985	1.3%	July - December 1985	3.8%
Unreported	15.6%	Unreported	12.5%

In summary, the majority of boards had taken action prior to December 1983 and the majority of schools prior to December 1984. In some cases, schools took action before the school board. The most frequently reported reasons for this situation were:

- The school was already experimenting with the policies and programs (e.g., co-operative education, work experience, code of student behaviour) outlined in Circular OSIS.
- The principal was involved with SERP, with the preparation and/or validation of OSIS, or with a curriculum guideline project in some way and was informed about the proposed policies prior to any public announcement.
- The school board was too small to provide guidance from a "central office" - the school and principal had to take appropriate action independently.

It should be recalled that directors of education and principals were informed of future changes to be made in secondary school policies by a numbered memorandum in June 1982; school boards received draft copies of OSIS in January 1983; and the final version of Circular OSIS was delivered to all boards and schools in September 1983 for implementation in September 1984.

8.2 RESEARCH QUESTION 1: HOW MUCH INFLUENCE DID PRINCIPALS ATTRIBUTE TO SELECTED FACTORS IN THE WAY THEY APPROACHED THE IMPLEMENTATION OF OSIS?

This question was addressed without reference to background characteristics or other variables. Mean scores were calculated by adding the influence reported "early in the process" and that reported "at present" to create a combined influence rating for each factor (maximum = 10.00). The analysis and conclusion presented here should be regarded as an answer to the last question (Research Question 19) asked in Part I of this report.

Table 8-1 reports the rank order of the combined influence for the 27 factors and also indicates the relationship of the factors to their classification as a Personal Context factor (PC), a Political and Organizational Context factor within the school (POCSCH) or within the school system (POCBRD), or a Policy Specification factor (SPEC).

While only four personal context factors were among the 27 included in the survey instrument, their overall rankings (2, 4, 7, and 18) suggest that they were considered extremely influential by respondents as they implemented the OSIS policy. The mean influence score associated with these factors was 7.375. Indeed, their importance is likely greater than suggested by these data: the factor which was ranked first in the study reported in Trider and Leithwood (in press) was not included in the survey instrument for this study. Had it been included, prior evidence suggests that it would also have been ranked very high.

Twenty-one political and organizational context factors were included in the questionnaire. These included factors which reside largely within the school (ranked 1, 3, 5, 9, 16, 17, 20, 22, 23, 26, and 27) and those which are to be found within the school system, particularly the central office (ranked 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 15, 19, 21, 24, and 25). The mean influence score associated with this category of factors was 6.775: there was little overall difference in influence attributed to the within school factors (mean influence score = 6.679) as compared with the school system factors (mean influence score = 6.871).

Only two factors related to the Policy Specification category were included in the survey instrument. These were ranked 13 and 14 with a mean influence score of 7.169 placing them between the other two categories in overall influence.

Viewed from the perspective of those individual factors ranked among the top ten in Table 8-1, it appears that principals are most influenced by:

- Their beliefs regarding the value of change and what is best for their students, and their knowledge of OSIS-related policies;

- Their staff's goals for education, willingness to accept direction, involvement in decision making, and ability to implement policy;
- The importance central administrators attached to policy implementation; and
- The support to be found among their fellow principals.

Table 8-1: Rank Order of Influence of Factors

Factor		Category	Mean (n=159)
1.	The amount of direction your staff is willing to accept from you	POCSCH	8.082
2.	Your belief about what is best for your students	PC	8.051
3.	Your staff's goals for education within your school	POCSCH	7.979
4.	Your knowledge of OSIS-related policy	PC	7.966
5.	Staff input to decision making in your school	POCSCH	7.959
6.	The attitude of central office administrators to implementing OSIS	POCBRD	7.771
7.	Your opinion of change in general	PC	7.718
8.	The amount of support available to you through contact with fellow principals	POCBRD	7.717
9.	The ability of teachers to implement the policy	POCSCH	7.571
10.	The working relationships between central office administrators and school staff	POCBRD	7.500
11.	Planning undertaken by central office	POCBRD	7.389
12.	The amount of support you received from central office administrators	POCBRD	7.374
13.	The clarity of written statements from the ministry	SPEC	7.361
14.	The clarity of written statements from the board	SPEC	7.324
15.	The value of assistance provided by support personnel from the board	POCBRD	7.322
16.	Your school's past experience with implementing new policies	POCSCH	7.228

Table 8-1, continued

Factor	Category	Mean (n=159)
17. The rate of progress of students under the new OSIS policy	POCSCH	7.213
18. Your agreement with the goals of the new OSIS policy	PC	7.189
19. The value of in-service sessions provided for principals by the central office	POCBRD	7.166
20. Opportunities to try different approaches to the implementation of OSIS policy	POCSCH	7.165
21. The system's past experience with implementing new policies	POCBRD	7.114
22. The enthusiasm and commitment of your staff to the changes required by OSIS	POCSCH	7.054
23. The interest of parents in the new OSIS policy	POCSCH	6.713
24. Monitoring procedures employed by central office administrators	POCBRD	6.669
25. Information you received on your school's progress in implementing the policy	POCBRD	6.503
26. The non-human resources available to help in the implementing process	POCSCH	5.904
27. The time available for in-school planning	POCSCH	5.559

Legend

PC	Personal Context Factor
POCSCH	Political and Organizational Factor within School
POCBRD	Political and Organizational Factor within System/Board
SPEC	Policy Specification Factor

These results differ from Trider and Leithwood (in press) only in the influence attributed to the principal's agreement with policy goals. While this factor was ranked 18th in the present study, it ranked 4th in the Trider and Leithwood study. A plausible reason for this distinction is the differing nature of the two sets of goals involved. In the case of the Trider study, the goals for Bill 82 were small in number, extremely clear, and focused on students with special needs including students who historically, in the minds of many, had been treated unfairly by schools. Such goals seem more likely to elicit strong responses among principals than those associated with Circular OSIS which can best be described as multiple, less clear, and focused on the needs of all students. In the interview reported in Appendix T of Part I of this study, the former Minister of Education, the Honourable Bette Stephenson, made a clear distinction between the two sets of policies: Bill 82 focused on legal and moral

179

principles related to the delivery of and access to educational services, while OSIS focused on the redesign and renewal of educational programs. Since the services to be delivered under Bill 82 were, for the most part, new, many secondary principals had no predispositions for or against the policy. However, Circular OSIS modified policies which had been in existence over ten years and many secondary principals could be expected to have well-established views on the relative merits of the new policies compared with those being replaced.

8.3 RESEARCH QUESTION 2: WERE DIFFERENCES FOUND AMONG THE DOMINANT ORIENTATION OF PRINCIPALS TOWARD OSIS IMPLEMENTATION WHICH RELATED TO DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEIVED INFLUENCE OF FACTORS?

Principals were asked to choose, from among three alternative courses of action, that which best described how they had approached each of five tasks basic to OSIS implementation. A category was also provided for "Other" responses but these answers were not included in this analysis. Each of the three alternatives was judged, through prior interviews with principals, to be symptomatic of one of three dominant orientations towards practice described by the secondary principals' profile (Leithwood, 1986). Table 7-2 (Chapter 7) indicates which items were associated with which orientation. Each item was assigned a number (1, 2 or 3) corresponding to the level of the orientation as specified in the profile. Using these numbers, each principal's dominant orientation was determined by their mean response score:

- 11 principals who had a mean response score between 1.0 and 1.8 were designated as using an "Administrator" orientation (a dominant concern for managing routines in the school);

- 102 principals who had mean response scores between 2.0 and 2.75 were designated as using a "Humanitarian" orientation (a dominant concern for interpersonal relationships); and

- 46 principals who had a mean score of 2.8 or over were designated as using a "Program Manager" orientation (a dominant concern for implementing effective programs).

On the basis of these data, we would not be able to predict or generalize about these principal orientations beyond the specific OSIS implementation tasks of interest in this study.

The first three columns of data in Table 8-2 indicate the overall influence attached to each factor by principals classified by dominant orientation to OSIS implementation tasks. An analysis of variance was performed on the responses of these three groups of principals. The right-hand column of Table 8-2 reports the probability for this test of variance.

Table 8-2: The Influence of Factors as Perceived by Principals with Different Orientations toward OSIS Implementation Tasks

Factor[12]	Administrator (n=11)	Humanitarian (n=102)	Program Manager (n=46)	F Probability
1. Amount of direction your staff is willing to accept from you	8.455	8.109	7.932	0.338
2. Your beliefs about what is best for your students	8.546	8.024	7.977	0.508
3. Your staff's goals for education within your school	7.909	8.057	7.841	0.616
4. Your knowledge of OSIS-related policy	8.364	8.010	7.756	0.287
5. Staff input to decision making in your school	8.091	7.968	7.909	0.866
6. Attitude of central office administrators to implementing OSIS	7.889	7.720	7.857	0.815
7. Your opinion of change in general	7.900	7.663	7.791	0.775
8. Support available to you through contact with fellow principals	7.778	7.742	7.651	0.918
9. Ability of teachers to implement new policy	8.091	7.522	7.546	0.381
10. Working relations between central office administrators and school staff	8.000	7.453	7.476	0.538
11. Planning undertaken by central office	7.600	7.359	7.405	0.881
12. Amount of support received from central office administrators	8.091	7.396	7.140	0.158
13. Clarity of written documents from the Ministry of Education	7.750	7.323	7.372	0.703

---

[12] The order used to report on factors in this, and other tables, is the same as the rank ordering used in Table 4-1.

Table 8-2, continued

Factor	Administrator (n=11)	Humanitarian (n=102)	Program Manager (n=46)	F Probability
14. Clarity of written documents from board	7.500	7.261	7.419	0.707
15. Value of assistance provided by board support personnel	7.455	7.337	7.256	0.887
16. School's past experience with implementing new policies	7.200	7.255	7.167	0.935
17. Rate of progress of students under OSIS policy	7.400	7.155	7.286	0.794
18. Your agreement with goals of OSIS policy	7.000	7.231	7.140	0.887
19. Value of in-service sessions provided for principals by central office	6.818	7.226	7.122	0.731
20. Opportunities to try different approaches to implement OSIS policy	7.222	7.069	7.349	0.484
21. System's past experience with implementing new policies	7.900	7.054	7.053	0.186
22. Enthusiasm and commitment of staff to changes required	7.364	7.087	6.909	0.606
23. Interest of parents in new OSIS policy	6.667	6.622	6.909	0.347
24. Monitoring procedures employed by central office administrators	6.818	6.670	6.628	0.924
25. Information received on your school's progress in implementing policy	6.546	6.374	6.781	0.287
26. Non-human resources available to help in implementing process	5.556	5.952	5.884	0.769
27. Time available for in-school planning	5.333	5.637	5.442	0.782

Differences in the variance between groups did not reach statistical significance ($p < 0.05$) for any of the factors.

The 27 factors were clustered into the four groups outlined in Table 8-1 - Personal Context factors, Political/Organizational Context factors related to the school, Political/Organizational Context factors related to the school system, and Policy Specification factors - and an analysis of variance was calculated using these four factor clusters and the three principal orientation groups.

Table 8-3: The Influence of Clustered Factors as Perceived by Principals with Different Orientations toward OSIS Implementation Tasks

Factor	Administrator (n=11)	Humanitarian (n=102)	Program Manager (n=46)	F Probability
Personal Context	7.455	7.079	7.576	0.200
Political and Organizational Context - School-based	6.678	6.600	6.853	0.616
Political and Organizational Context - System-based	7.064	6.916	6.724	0.691
Policy Specification	6.227	7.176	7.395	0.020*

*$p < 0.050$

The analysis of variance for policy specification factors indicated that the three groups of principals differed in reported mean scores to a significant level ($p < 0.05$) with principals using an Administrator orientation reporting this factor as having significantly less influence than either of the other two groups. In addition, the Cochran C test for homogeneity of variance indicated that the group of principals identified as having a Humanitarian orientation differed from the other two groups in rating Personal Context factors as having less influence; and principals with an Administrator orientation differed significantly from the other two groups in rating policy specification factors as having less influence.

These data provide modest support for the claim that principals with different orientations toward OSIS implementation are influenced by different factors. Trider (1985) reported significant differences among groups of principals with different orientations on 18 (of 71) factors. The major similarity in the two sets of data is the tendency for principals with an Administrator orientation to be more influenced than others by organizational factors outside their schools. As Trider and Leithwood (in press) suggest, it may be that:

> These principals are most influenced by a series of organizational context factors

> emphasizing a strong central office presence. Administrators, in allowing teachers to make their own decisions, consider it important to have opportunities to make decisions at the local level and to receive support from central office personnel. Administrators also look to central office supervisors, support personnel and fellow principals for support and reinforcement of their decisions.

8.4 RESEARCH QUESTION 3: WERE DIFFERENCES IN THE PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE FAVOURABLENESS OF THE CONDITION OF FACTORS RELATED TO THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF THE INFLUENCE OF THOSE FACTORS?

For each factor, the survey instrument asked principals for four responses. Two responses concerned the state or condition of the factor (non-existent, very poor, moderate, sufficient, more than sufficient) both "early in the process" and "at present". The influence of the factor was also rated (from strongly negative to strongly positive) at both times. These ratings were used to determine the extent of the relationship that existed, in the principals' view, between influence and favourableness of condition of each factor. We were interested in determining whether the existence of a factor under favourable conditions would be associated with a high degree of influence of that factor on policy implementation: for example, would a positive perception about the ability of teachers to implement the policy (high degree of favourableness) be positively related to a high degree of influence of that factor?

Table 8-4 provides three sets of correlation data which help answer this question. The correlations range from about 0.43 (factor 16, column 2) to about 0.80 (factor 18, column 2). Of the 81 correlations calculated between strength of influence and condition of the factor, all were statistically significant at the $p < 0.001$ level. These results, like those of Trider and Leithwood (in press), support the general proposition that as the state or condition of a factor is perceived to increase in its favourableness, so too does its perceived influence on principals' practices in policy implementation.

Of more practical value than such general results, however, is the identification of factors that are both highly influential overall and sensitive to variation in their condition. Of the ten factors showing the largest overall correlation between condition and strength of influence in Table 8-4 (in rank order, factors 19, 18, 3, 10, 8, 11, 21, 12, 15, and 1), four are also to be found among the ten most influential factors reported in Table 8-1:

- Factor 3: Your staff's goals for education within your school;

- Factor 10: the working relationships existing between central office administrators and school staff.

- Factor 8: the amount of support available to you through local contact with fellow principals; and

- Factor 1: the amount of direction your staff is willing to accept from you;

Two other factors very similar in their influence and sensitivity to change include:

- Factor 12: the amount of support you receive from central office administrators; and

- Factor 15: the value of assistance provided by support personnel from the boards.

By way of summary, it appears that agreement with and support for policy implementation among the school staff, fellow principals and central office administrators are perhaps the most crucial variables considered by the principal as they approach the policy implementation problem. In light of these data and those provided in Trider and Leithwood (in press), special emphasis should be given to the working relationships with and support from central office administrators (factors 10 and 15) in efforts to stimulate school level policy implementation.

Table 8-4: The Relationship between the Perceived Favourableness of the Condition of Factors and their Perceived Influence

Factor		Early Condition related to Early Influence	Present Condition related to Present Influence	Combined Condition related to Combined Influence
1.	Amount of direction your staff is willing to accept from you	0.666	0.655	0.706
2.	Your beliefs about what is best for your students	0.635	0.711	0.699
3.	Your staff's goals for education within your school	0.707	0.656	0.789
4.	Your knowledge of OSIS-related policy	0.667	0.447	0.645
5.	Staff input to decision making in your school	0.621	0.617	0.638
6.	Attitude of central office administrators to implementing OSIS	0.684	0.681	0.701
7.	Your opinion of change in general	0.655	0.609	0.690
8.	Support available through contact with fellow principals	0.679	0.732	0.741

Table 8-4, continued

Factor	Early Condition related to Early Influence	Present Condition related to Present Influence	Combined Condition related to Combined Influence
9. Ability of teachers to implement the new policy	0.685	0.590	0.695
10. Working relationships between central office administrators and school staff	0.763	0.771	0.778
11. Planning undertaken by central office	0.716	0.717	0.731
12. Amount of support received from central office administrators	0.705	0.735	0.721
13. Clarity of written documents from the Ministry of Education	0.609	0.696	0.680
14. Clarity of written documents from board	0.592	0.636	0.633
15. Value of assistance provided by board support personnel	0.704	0.640	0.712
16. School's past experience with implementing new policies	0.567	0.439	0.541
17. Rate of progress of students under new OSIS policy	0.551	0.523	0.561
18. Your agreement with the goals of OSIS policy	0.674	0.803	0.789
19. Value of in-service sessions provided for principals by central office	0.742	0.794	0.798
20. Opportunities to try differemt approaches to implement OSIS policy	0.628	0.696	0.703
21. System's past experience with implementing new policies	0.671	0.718	0.731
22. Enthusiasm and commitment of staff to changes required.	0.592	0.707	0.680
23. Interest of parents in new OSIS policy	0.638	0.677	0.671
24. Monitoring procedures employed by central office administrators	0.658	0.640	0.671

Table 8-4, continued

Factor	Early Condition related to Early Influence	Present Condition related to Present Influence	Combined Condition related to Combined Influence
25. Information received on your school's progress in implementing policy	0.631	0.711	0.689
26. Non-human resources available to help in implementing process	0.628	0.646	0.650
27. Time available for in-school planning	0.644	0.694	0.688

8.5 RESEARCH QUESTION 4: WAS THE STAGE IN THE CHANGE PROCESS ("EARLY", "AT PRESENT") RELATED TO THE EXTENT OF THE INFLUENCE OF FACTORS?

Principals were asked to rate the influence of each factor "early in the process" of OSIS implementation and "at present". Research concerning the change process frequently asserts distinct stages of change: for example, initiation, implementation, and institutionalization. Miles (1986a) provided evidence to suggest that factors influencing change at each of these stages are different. There is little evidence concerning how such differences manifest themselves in the responses of principals specifically. This research question was addressed by computing the significance of differences in the ratings awarded each factor at the two points in time.

The mean influence scores were compared using a t-test and all 27 factors were rated significantly more influential ($p < 0.001$) "at present" than they were "early in the process". These differences are reported in Table 8-5. The six factors which increased most in strength from earlier to later in the implementation process included:

- Factor 4: your knowledge of OSIS-related policy (personal context factor);
- Factor 18: your agreement with the goals of OSIS policy (personal context factor);
- Factor 22: the enthusiasm and commitment of your staff to the changes required (within school factor);
- Factor 25: information received on your school's progress in implementing policy (within system factor);

- Factor 15: value of assistance provided by board support personnel (within system factor); and

- Factor 16: your school's past experience with implementing new policies (within school factor).

With the exception of factor 5 which was ranked high at both times, each factor shifted from a position of moderate to low influence early in the process to a relatively stronger position of influence later.

Results suggest, in sum, that the factors take on greater importance, in the principal's view, as efforts to implement the policy proceed. This is particularly the case with respect to factors concerned with personal contexts and with the internal operation of the school and assistance for in-school activity available through support personnel from the board. Although the specific factors that are awarded greatest increase in influence are different, the overall importance attached to the school's internal operation reflects the findings of Trider and Leithwood (in press). Clearly, principals are strongly influenced, in particular, by their estimate of the value of assistance provided by support personnel from the board.

Table 8-5: Changes in the Influence of Factors from Early to Later in the Implementation Process

Factor		Change in mean rating from "Early" Influence to Influence "At Present"
1.	Amount of direction your staff is willing to accept from you	0.163
2.	Your beliefs about what is best for your students	0.153
3.	Your staff's goals for education within your school	0.175
4.	Your knowledge of OSIS-related policy	0.507
5.	Staff input to decision making in your school	0.176
6.	Attitude of central office administrators to implementing OSIS	0.201
7.	Your opinion of change in general	0.197
8.	Support available to you through contact with fellow principals	0.214

Table 8-5, continued

Factor		Change in mean rating from "Early" Influence to Influence "At Present"
9.	Ability of teachers to implement the new policy	0.333
10.	Working relationships between central office administrators and school staff	0.311
11.	Planning undertaken by central office	0.208
12.	Amount of support you received from central office administrators	0.240
13.	Clarity of written documents from the Ministry of Education	0.208
14.	Clarity of written documents from board	0.179
15.	Value of assistance provided by board support personnel	0.396
16.	School's past experience with implementing new policies	0.377
17.	Rate of progress of students under new policy	0.230
18.	Your agreement with the goals of OSIS policy	0.448
19.	Value of in-service sessions provided for principals by central office	0.214
20.	Opportunities to try different approaches to implement OSIS policy	0.302
21.	System's past experience with implementing new policies	0.186
22.	Enthusiasm and commitment of staff to changes required	0.442
23.	Interest of parents in new policy	0.210
24.	Monitoring procedures employed by central office administrators	0.205
25.	Information received on your school's progress in implementing policy	0.420
26.	Non-human resources available to help in implementing process	0.304
27.	Time available for in-school planning	0.203

8.6 RESEARCH QUESTION 5: WERE DIFFERENCES IN THE PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE DEGREE TO WHICH OSIS HAD BEEN IMPLEMENTED RELATED TO DIFFERENCES IN THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF THE INFLUENCE OF FACTORS?

The survey instrument asked principals to rate (on a 4-point scale) the extent to which OSIS requirements and related regulations were being implemented in their schools. Correlations were calculated between these ratings and the importance awarded each factor early and later in the implementation process: only those between the extent of implementation and the influence of the factor at present showed any statistical significance.

Table 8-6 reports correlations between implementation ratings and influence ratings "at present" in the process. Twenty-four of the 27 correlations were positive: as ratings of implementation increased so did the reported influence of these 24 factors. Seven correlations were statistically significant (factors 11, 12, 13, 16, 19, 21, 24). In all but the case of factor 16 (your school's past experiences with implementing new policies), these factors focus on actions taken outside the school, primarily by those in the central board office. The only exception to this focus was factor 13 which concerned the clarity of policy-related documents provided by the Ministry of Education.

These findings provide an intriguing contrast to the results reported for the previous question. In the data reported in Table 8-5, factors which existed largely within the school took on greater importance as implementation proceeded; in Table 8-6 factors which exist largely within the larger school system are more significant to full implementation of the policy. How do we make sense of these two sets of findings? The unstructured comments written on the survey instrument provide some clues to this question, but our answer is tentative at this point. Principals appear to recognize that as a policy document, OSIS can be interpreted at two levels. The first level concerns the administrative and organizational demands placed on schools (e.g., credit requirements, school calendars, code of student behaviour). These demands could be met quite directly through actions by the principal and, although requiring some effort, could be implemented relatively quickly. We speculate that many principals had this level of policy interpretation in mind as they rated the degree of OSIS implementation in their schools. Further, the support, planning, in-service sessions, and other services provided by central office staff seem likely to have focused on these first level type changes. The fact that the majority of respondents rated the degree to which OSIS implementation is a current priority in their schools at 2.0 (refer to section 8.1.3) - one step removed from "top priority" - suggests that the administrative concerns of OSIS implementation were a top priority in the 1984-85 school year and have been replaced by other concerns in the 1985-86 school year.

The second level of interpretation of OSIS concerns the implications of the policy for instructional and curricular changes in schools (e.g., developing programs at three levels which actually meet the needs of students in the classroom, establishing co-operative education programs, promoting self-discipline). Such changes are clearly more complex and require a much longer period of time to implement than do changes at the first level of policy interpretation. Internal school factors are crucial to the success of the second level changes.

Although not statistically significant, the negative correlations shown in Table 8-6 for factors 2, 5, and 17 are consistent with this explanation. In particular, the negative relationship between degree of implementation and beliefs about what is best for students and student progress mirrors written comments from principals questioning the benefit of some changes, introduced by OSIS, to the welfare of students.

Table 8-6: The Relationship of Perceived Degree of OSIS Implementation and Influence of Factors

Factor	Correlation between Degree of OSIS Implementation and Influence of Factors
1. Amount of direction your staff is willing to accept from you	+0.124
2. Your beliefs about what is best for students	-0.106
3. Your staff's goals for education in school	+0.065
4. Your knowledge of OSIS-related policy	+0.194
5. Staff input to decision making in school	-0.034
6. Attitude of central office administrators to implementing OSIS	+0.068
7. Your opinion of change in general	+0.124
8. Support available to you through contact with fellow principals	+0.089
9. Ability of teachers to implement new policy	+0.077
10. Working relationships between central office administrators and school staff	+0.140
11. Planning undertaken by central office	+0.224***
12. Amount of support you received from central office administrators	+0.173*
13. Clarity of written documents from the Ministry of Education	+0.280**
14. Clarity of written documents from board	+0.045
15. Value of assistance provided by board support personnel	+0.092

Table 8-6, continued

Factor	Correlation between Degree of OSIS Implementation and Influence of Factors
16. School's past experience with implementing new policies	+0.282***
17. Rate of progress of students under new policy	-0.019
18. Your agreement with the goals of OSIS policy	+0.064
19. Value of in-service sessions provided for principals by central office	+0.210**
20. Opportunities to try different approaches to implement OSIS policy	+0.077
21. System's past experience with implementing new policies	+0.279***
22. Enthusiasm and commitment of staff to changes required	+0.148
23. Interest of parents in new policy	+0.139
24. Monitoring procedures employed by central office administrators	+0.236**
25. Information received on your school's progress in implementing policy	+0.198
26. Non-human resources available to help in implementing process	+0.152
27. Time available for in-school planning	+0.140

*$p < 0.05$
**$p < 0.01$
***$p < 0.001$

8.7 RESEARCH QUESTION 6: WAS THERE A RELATIONSHIP AMONG THE PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE INFLUENCE OF FACTORS AND SELECTED BACKGROUND VARIABLES?

This question was addressed by carrying out various statistical procedures using age, sex, number of years as a secondary principal and school enrolment as the independent variables and the combined rating on influence for individual factors and for factors clustered by personal context, political and organizational within the school context, political and organizational within the school system context, and policy specification factors as the dependent variables.

Table 8-7 indicates that only 9 of the 27 factors varied significantly within any of the background variables. Of these, two - staff input to decision making in your school and the system's experience with implementing new policies - varied significantly for two background variables.

Table 8-7: Factors Demonstrating Significant Variation within Selected Background Variables: Principal's Age, Years of Experience as a Secondary Principal, Sex, and Size of School

Factor	Age	Years of Experience	Sex	School Size
2. Your beliefs about what is best for your students				*
5. Staff input to decision making in your school	***	**		
10. Working relationships between central administrators and school staff		*		
13. Clarity of written documents from the Ministry of Education	*			
16. Your school's past experience with implementing new policies				*
17. Rate of progress of students under new OSIS policy	*			
19. Value of in-service sessions provided for principals by central office	*			
21. The system's past experience with implementing new policies	**	**		
25. Information you received on your school's progress in implementing policies		**		

8.7.1 Differences by Age

Table 8-8 presents a detailed report of the analyses concerning the influence of factors on principals assigned to six different age categories. These results include the following:

- Factor 21 - the system's experience with implementing new policies: As principals become older they tend to award greater influence to this factor perhaps because their own experience and "the system's" become increasingly similar; they increasingly represent the system's past experience.

- Factor 19 - the value of in-service sessions provided for principals by the central office: As principals increase in age, they show a tendency to attribute more importance to this factor.

- Factor 17 - the rate of progress of the students under the new OSIS policy: Principals in the youngest and oldest age groups were more influenced by this factor than those in the intermediate age groups.

- Factor 5 - staff input to decision making in your school: Two groups of principals appear less influenced by this factor than the others - those between 46 and 50 years and between 56 and 60 years.

- Factor 13 - the clarity of documents from the Ministry of Education: The oldest category of principals (over 60 years) were more influenced by this factor than principals in other age categories.

Finally, the factors were clustered into personal context, within school political and organizational context, within system political and organizational context and policy specification groups and analysed in comparison to age categories. The within system context factors showed a significant difference. The oldest principals assigned a much higher influence to these variables and the youngest a much lower influence than the intermediate age groups.

This finding summarizes, reasonably well, the strongest trend in the data on age. The oldest group of principals seemed to be particularly sensitive to influences from the school system and the youngest were least sensitive. This result, however, must be tempered by the limitations inherent in the small sample of principals in both groups.

Table 8-8: The Influence of Factors on Principals of Different Ages

Factor		36-40 years (n=12)	41-45 years (n=23)	46-50 years (n=46)	51-55 years (n=41)	56-60 years (n=14)	61 + years (n=4)
1.	Amount of direction your staff is willing to accept from you	8.333	8.044	8.233	8.000	7.667	8.000
2.	Your beliefs about what is best for your students	8.667	8.429	8.256	7.762	7.546	7.500
3.	Your staff's goals for education within your school	8.250	8.174	8.024	8.024	7.231	7.750
4.	Your knowledge of OSIS-related policy	8.000	8.304	7.756	8.000	7.643	8.250
5.	Staff input to decision making in your school	8.083	8.364	7.750	8.182	7.000	8.750
6.	Attitude of central office administrators to implementing OSIS	7.500	7.667	7.651	7.773	8.167	9.250
7.	Your opinion of change in general	7.750	8.130	7.725	7.318	7.677	8.750
8.	Support available to you through contact with fellow principals	7.500	7.773	7.558	7.909	8.000	8.000
9.	Ability of teachers to implement new policy	7.250	7.435	7.861	7.513	7.231	8.000
10.	Working relations between central office administrators and school staff	6.583	7.727	7.370	7.721	7.385	8.750
11.	Planning undertaken by central office	6.636	7.273	7.227	7.714	7.308	8.500
12.	Amount of support received from central office administrators	6.833	7.130	7.087	7.905	7.288	8.000
13.	Clarity of written documents from the Ministry of Education	7.667	7.318	7.023	7.500	7.333	9.250
14.	Clarity of written documents from board	7.273	7.391	7.093	7.419	7.308	8.000
15.	Value of assistance provided by board support personnel	6.917	7.087	7.196	7.659	7.357	8.250
16.	School's past experience with implementing new policies	6.364	7.650	7.283	7.333	6.929	7.500

Table 8-8, continued

Factor	36-40 years (n=12)	41-45 years (n=23)	46-50 years (n=46)	51-55 years (n=41)	56-60 years (n=14)	61 + years (n=4)
17. Rate of progress of students under OSIS policy	8.400	7.046	6.846	7.326	7.333	8.000
18. Your agreement with goals of OSIS policy	8.250	7.046	7.146	6.818	7.667	8.000
19. Value of in-service sessions provided for principals by central office	6.000	6.571	7.044	7.643	7.231	8.250
20. Opportunities to try different approaches to implement OSIS policy	7.273	6.909	7.308	6.977	7.455	8.250
21. System's past experience with implementing new policies	6.600	6.591	6.837	7.585	7.071	8.750
22. Enthusiasm and commitment of staff to changes required	7.417	6.652	7.119	6.909	7.154	8.000
23. Interest of parents in new OSIS policy	7.083	6.773	6.810	6.476	6.583	7.750
24. Monitoring procedures employed by central office administrators	6.083	6.391	6.717	6.907	6.429	7.500
25. Information received on your school's progress in implementing policy	5.600	6.364	6.489	6.488	6.539	8.000
26. Non-human resources available to help in implementing process	6.091	5.273	6.154	6.049	5.546	6.667
27. Time available for in-school planning	6.167	4.727	5.357	5.767	5.917	6.500

8.7.2 Differences by Experience

Table 8-9 reports the results of our analysis of the combined influence of factors on respondents categorized by years of experience as a secondary principal - 1 to 5 years, 6 to 10 years, and 11 or more years.

The results show that for factors 21, 10, and 25, all within school system factors, the greatest influence was reported by the principals with the most experience in the secondary panel. This was also the case when the factors were combined into context categories. The most experienced principals also assigned significantly more influence to policy specification factors than less experienced principals. Factor 5, concerned with staff input to decision making, was assigned the greatest influence by the least experienced principals.

Because of the interdependence of age and years of experience, it is not surprising to find some similar trends in the two sets of data.

Table 8-9: The Influence of Factors on Principals of Different Years of Experience as Secondary Principals

Factor	1 - 5 years (n=59)	6 - 10 years (n=35)	11 + years (n=44)
1. Amount of direction your staff is willing to accept from you	8.203	8.000	8.022
2. Your beliefs about what is best for your students	8.400	7.828	7.878
3. Your staff's goals for education within your school	8.086	7.839	7.977
4. Your knowledge of OSIS-related policy	7.900	7.882	8.114
5. Staff input to decision making in your school	8.288	7.576	7.889
6. Attitude of central office to implementing OSIS	7.900	7.807	7.667
7. Your opinion of change in general	7.793	7.636	7.651
8. Support available to you through contact with fellow principals	7.525	7.903	7.889
9. Ability of teachers to implement new policy	7.661	7.515	7.432
10. Working relations between central office administrators and school staff	7.593	7.471	7.444
11. Planning undertaken by central office	7.357	7.303	7.578
12. Amount of support received from central office administrators	7.400	7.618	7.133
13. Clarity of written documents from the Ministry of Education	7.356	7.333	7.378
14. Clarity of written documents from board	7.368	7.455	7.178
15. Value of assistance provided by board support personnel	7.305	7.286	7.386
16. School's past experience with implementing new policies	7.193	7.294	7.227

Table 8-9, continued

Factor	1 - 5 years (n=59)	6 - 10 years (n=35)	11 + years (n=44)
17. Rate of progress of students under OSIS policy	7.482	6.633	7.349
18. Your agreement with goals of OSIS policy	7.259	7.167	
19. Value of in-service session provided for principals by central office	6.964	7.000	7.378
20. Opportunities to try different approaches to implement OSIS policy	7.196	7.138	7.205
21. System's past experience with implementing new policies	7.052	7.000	7.167
22. Enthusiasm and commitment of staff to changes required.	7.259	6.758	6.956
23. Interest of parents in new OSIS policy	6.828	6.667	6.744
24. Monitoring procedures employed by central office administrators	6.683	6.800	6.533
25. Information received on your school's progress in implementing policy	6.310	6.424	6.698
26. Non-human resources available to help in implementing process	5.909	6.037	5.814
27. Time available for in-school planning	5.621	5.633	5.400

8.7.3 Differences by Sex

Results of the analyses of variance concerning differences in the reported influence of factors by men as compared to women are presented in Table 8-10. The sample of women was very small (n=17). No significant differences emerged when individual factors were considered. However, when categories of factors were analysed, women reported a significantly higher level of influence for within school political and organizational context factors.

Table 8-10: The Influence of Factors on Principals of Different Sex

	Factor	Male (n=125)	Female (n=17)
1.	Amount of direction your staff is willing to accept from you	8.016	8.563
2.	Your beliefs about what is best for your students	8.085	8.125
3.	Your staff's goals for education within your school	7.950	8.125
4.	Your knowledge of OSIS-related policy	7.936	8.125
5.	Staff input to decision making in your school	7.911	8.313
6.	Attitude of central office administrators to implementing OSIS	7.752	7.938
7.	Your opinion of change in general	7.692	7.750
8.	Support available to you through contact with fellow principals	7.721	7.813
9.	Ability of teachers to implement new policy	7.561	7.563
10.	Working relations between central office administrators and school staff	7.448	7.875
11.	Planning undertaken by central office	7.322	7.875
12.	Amount of support received from central office administrators	7.360	7.412
13.	Clarity of written documents from the Ministry of Education	7.322	7.750
14.	Clarity of written documents from board	7.252	7.667
15.	Value of assistance provided by board support personnel	7.339	7.118
16.	School's past experience with implementing new policies	7.221	7.375
17.	Rate of progress of students under OSIS policy	7.149	7.733
18.	Your agreement with goals of OSIS policy	7.233	6.813
19.	Value of in-service sessions provided for principals by central office	7.082	7.375
20.	Opportunities to try different approaches to implement OSIS policy	7.190	7.063

Table 8-10, continued

Factor	Male (n=125)	Female (n=17)
21. System's past experience with implementing new policies	7.050	7.438
22. Enthusiasm and commitment of staff to changes required.	7.033	7.125
23. Interest of parents in new OSIS policy	6.723	6.813
24. Monitoring procedures employed by central office administrators	6.659	6.529
25. Information received on your school's progress in implementing policy	6.467	6.375
26. Non-human resources available to help in implementing process	5.860	6.143
27. Time available for in-school planning	5.492	5.688

8.7.4 Differences by Size of School

Schools were classified as small (1 to 499 students), medium (500 to 999 students) and large (1000 students or more). Table 8-11 reports the mean influence scores for these three groups on each factor.

The influence reported for factor 16 (your schools' past experience with implementing new policies) increased with school size. A similar pattern was reported for factor 5 (staff input to decision making in your school). While these factors are viewed as influential by all principals, as the results in Table 8-11 show, past experience enhances current practice while staff participation in decision making requires an increased effort as school size increases. Such an effort may have transformed itself into attributions of degree of influence in our data. Trider and Leithwood (in press) found a similar trend for principals to become increasingly concerned about staff participation in decision making as their schools increased in size.

Table 8-11: The Influence of Factors on Principals with Schools of Different Sizes

Factor		1 - 500 Students (n=43)	501 - 1000 Students (M=62)	1001 + Students (n=45)
1.	Amount of direction your staff is willing to accept from you	8.024	8.049	8.182
2.	Your beliefs about what is best for your students	8.051	8.175	7.878
3.	Your staff's goals for education within your school	7.975	8.085	7.841
4.	Your knowledge of OSIS-related policy	7.864	7.817	8.273
5.	Staff input to decision making in your school	7.744	8.033	8.067
6.	Attitude of central office administrators to implementing OSIS	7.707	7.879	7.689
7.	Your opinion of change in general	7.625	7.707	7.818
8.	Support available to you through contact with fellow principals	7.610	7.712	7.822
9.	Ability of teachers to implement new policy	7.293	7.705	7.644
10.	Working relations between central office administrators and school staff	7.310	7.500	7.682
11.	Planning undertaken by central office	7.077	7.532	7.465
12.	Amount of support received from central office administrators	7.233	7.532	7.289
13.	Clarity of written documents from the Ministry of Education	7.220	7.414	7.422
14.	Clarity of written documents from board	7.100	7.517	7.267
15.	Value of assistance provided by board support personnel	7.163	7.344	7.444
16.	School's past experience with implementing new policies	6.810	7.328	7.488
17.	Rate of progress of students under OSIS policy	6.974	7.298	7.317

Table 8-11, continued

Factor	1 - 500 Students (n=43)	501 - 1000 Students (M=62)	1001 + Students (n=45)
18. Your agreement with goals of OSIS policy	6.927	7.220	7.395
19. Value of in-service sessions provided for principals by central office	7.025	7.246	7.182
20. Opportunities to try different approaches to implement OSIS policy	7.026	7.241	7.186
21. System's past experience with implementing new policies	6.974	7.150	7.191
22. Enthusiasm and commitment of staff to changes required.	7.071	7.197	6.841
23. Interest of parents in new OSIS policy	6.436	6.864	6.756
24. Monitoring procedures employed by central office administrators	6.364	6.710	6.911
25. Information received on your school's progress in implementing policy	6.450	6.569	6.467
26. Non-human resources available to help in implementing process	6.139	5.732	5.930
27. Time available for in-school planning	5.775	5.525	5.406

8.8 RESEARCH QUESTION 7: WHAT WERE PRINCIPALS' UNDERSTANDINGS OF THE MAIN FEATURES OF OSIS POLICY (AS THESE DIFFERED FROM HS1 POLICY) AND HOW DID THESE UNDERSTANDINGS COMPARE WITH THE POLICY AS SPECIFIED IN CIRCULAR OSIS?

As part of the analysis reported in Part I of this report (see Appendix S), a comparison was made between the policy statements in Circular HS1 and Circular OSIS. This analysis reveals that the differences between the two documents are modest and somewhat difficult to determine. In order to determine whether principals had understood the explicit statements made in OSIS and how they perceived the actual changes, respondents were asked to respond to a series of policy statements, indicating whether or not they agreed that OSIS made such a statement. They were also asked to rate the importance of each policy statement.

Table 8-12 reports the results of the analysis of these responses. Column three of the table indicates, on the basis of our content analysis of the documents, whether agreement with the policy statement is warranted.

Secondary analyses were conducted to determine if there was a difference based on the principal's orientation to OSIS implementation activities. No significant differences emerged in these analyses.

Table 8-12: Principals' Agreement with and Importance of Statements about OSIS

Policy Statements	Level of Agreement	Degree of Importance	Our Analysis
As compared to HS1, the policy on secondary schools described in OSIS ...			
1. .. gives more attention to cultural minorities.	3.867	3.560	Yes
2. .. indicates that OACs will be more prescriptive than Grade 13 courses.	4.178	3.954	No
3. .. places more emphasis on the relationship between the school and the workplace.	4.421	4.355	Yes
4. .. provides for more student choice.	2.007	3.901	No
5. .. places more emphasis on problem-solving skills.	3.664	4.033	Yes
6. .. places more emphasis on basic literacy and numeracy skills.	3.740	4.168	Yes
7. .. calls for schools to give greater attention to standards for student attendance.	4.000	4.520	Yes
8. .. encourages semestering.	3.719	3.179	No
9. .. places more emphasis on course content.	3.144	3.493	No
10. .. places more emphasis on students guidance.	4.418	4.342	Yes
11. .. gives more attention to the needs of the student who is not likely to go to university.	3.464	4.288	Yes
12. .. is more prescriptive.	4.183	4.014	Yes
13. .. places more emphasis on the development of the self-directed problem-solver.	3.682	4.014	Yes

Table 8-12, continued

Policy Statements	Level of Agreement	Degree of Importance	Our Analysis
As compared to HS1, the policy on secondary schools described in OSIS ...			
14. .. calls for schools to give greater attention to student discipline.	4.019	4.211	Yes
15. .. gives greater attention to the needs of exceptional students.	4.188	4.237	Yes
16. .. increases the number of compulsory credits in the student's language of instruction.	4.634	4.020	Yes
17. .. makes the rules for graduation tougher for some students and easier for others.	4.000	3.628	Yes
18. .. expresses more concern for sex equity.	4.146	3.727	Yes
19. .. reduces the importance of technical courses.	3.546	3.814	No
20. .. increases the importance of academic courses.	3.837	3.791	Yes

Of the twenty statements, the principals understanding differed markedly from ours on only item 2. Our reading of Circular OSIS indicates that nowhere does the document state that OACs will be more prescriptive than Grade 13 courses. Circular OSIS states that "it is particularly important that depth of study and high academic standards be maintained in these courses". Respondents may have been responding to reports from within the ministry that OACs would be more highly prescriptive, but this is not stated in Circular OSIS.

The principals' understanding differed marginally from ours on items 8, 11, and 19. Item 19 dealt with the reduction of importance of technical courses. One principal commented that while the policy may not have intended to reduce the importance of such courses, the overall effect of other policies (i.e., an increased number of compulsory credits in academic areas) was to reduce the number of technical courses a student could take and hence to reduce the importance of this area of the curriculum.

Item 8 dealt with the possibility that OSIS encouraged semestering. The mean score reported by respondents suggests that they agree that OSIS encourages semestering; but our analysis indicates that the only mention of semesters in OSIS relates to flexible timetabling arrangements to accommodate returning students (i.e., students who have left school and who subsequently decide to return to continue their education or students who wish to attend school part-time). The perception that OSIS encourages semestering appears to come from the practical necessity for schools to compete with each other to retain students who are not interested in a full course of studies (see interview with Margaret Wilson, Appendix T, Part I).

Item 11 dealt with the increased attention in OSIS to the non-university bound student. OSIS, in fact, claims that it maintains the same curriculum priorities as HS1 with two exceptions one of which is the added task of preparing young people to enter the world of work. The discussion in OSIS on the design of general and basic level courses is much more extensive than the parallel sections in HS1 and indicates that these courses are to focus on problem solving and the practical application of concepts and principles. OSIS encourages schools to engage in new attempts to develop work-oriented programs, linkage programs, and co-operative education programs. This material is either new in OSIS or has been expanded from the HS1 material. However, this emphasis is countered by the requirement that students complete 16 compulsory credits (14 of which are clearly academic). Even students who wish to leave school early must complete 5 academic credits out of the 14 necessary to earn a Certificate of Education. The two messages appear to be incompatible - one calls for increased emphasis on work-related skills and courses; the other for academic courses (although presumably including work-related skills such as literacy and numeracy).

Several general concerns about the policy outlined in Circular OSIS were evident from the written comments included on returned questionnaires.

- Although specific sections of Circular OSIS outlined policies which were intended to benefit students generally, the consequences of the policy in its entirety was perceived as being a disadvantage, particularly to students working at the general level. Ongoing monitoring of the outcomes of the changes introduced by OSIS will determine if the policy-in-action is as incongruent with the policy-as-stated as many principals believe it to be.

- A few principals commented that, while the administrative policies were already in place at the school level, the general philosophy introduced by OSIS would take time to develop and implement at the classroom level.

- Several principals were concerned that the appropriate textbooks and resource materials were not available particularly for the general and basic level courses. At the school level, the administration policies outlined in OSIS were implemented without much difficulty but the program policies were difficult to implement without the appropriate curriculum guidelines and resource materials. The ministry's assurances that schools could use existing curriculum guidelines and courses of study appeared to do little to reassure those principals whose major concern was program development.

- Many principals expressed concern about the effect of OSIS on students working at the general level. The issue is complex and several points need to be considered. First, some principals saw the decline in registration in technical courses and the increased number of required academic credits as a major concern which directly affected the choices available to students working at the general level. It was not clear whether these principals had considered how the redesign of academic general level courses might help prepare students to use new technologies (and thus enhance technical studies), to enter the labour force directly or to continue their education in occupational programs at community colleges. Second, co-operative education courses in all areas of the curriculum were seen as benefiting students working at the advanced level more than any other group of students. The design of general level co-operative education courses had apparently not proceeded as effectively as the design of similar advanced level programs. Third, the actual design of general level courses was unclear - in part because curriculum guidelines and teaching resources were unavailable and in part because the idea of including problem-solving skills in academic courses appeared to be new.

- Several principals expressed concern that OSIS had effectively nullified the concept of modified-basic courses and schools. Again it was unclear if this had resulted from the lack of curriculum guidelines and teaching resources, from changes in the number of required academic credits, or from the lack of expertise in modifying programs for students working at this level.

The importance attached by principals to the various policy statements may change as OSIS becomes institutionalized. However, it is interesting to note the general lack of importance placed on such changes as increased concern about cultural minorities and sex equity.

8.9 CONCLUSION

Principals are asked to play many roles in their schools. The greatest emphasis in recent years has been awarded to the role of curriculum and instructional leadership. Underlying the importance attached to this role is the assumption that principals have considerable discretion with respect to the directions they pursue in their schools and the way those directions are pursued. This assumption must be tempered, however, by the context of the larger school system within which principals work. As in most Canadian provinces, the Ontario school system is quite prescriptive with regard to overall directions for school improvement. An increasingly coherent and interdependent network of policies and curriculum guidelines ensures that this is the case. Principals' discretion to establish directions for their schools, therefore, must be exercised in terms of short-term goals and processes for both achieving short-term goals and moving in the long-term directions that are largely determined from outside the school.

This discretion might be termed a policy implementation role for the principal, providing that one has a sufficiently rich understanding of the possibilities inherent in such a role. We do not see such a role, for example, as involving unquestioning responsiveness to directions issued from above, for as Majone and Wildavsky (1978) have reminded us:

> ... literal implementation (of a policy) is literally impossible. Unless a policy matter

> is narrow and uninteresting, the policy will never be able to contain its own consequences.

The term "directions", then, implies a vague future target to work toward. In the process, many things, both good and bad, may actually be achieved depending on what implementors do. The responsibility for the consequences of a policy - deciding on what those consequences both ought to be and, in reality, can be - resides in those who implement the policy, not those who develop it. That is why it is so crucial to try to understand what key implementors of the OSIS policy (in this case, principals) did and why. More specifically, if there is to be any relationship between the aspirations of policy developers and the effects of their policies, we must become much more sophisticated in our understanding of what makes a difference to implementors, under what conditions and why. Only then will we be able to realize major social aspirations through educational change.

The learnings from this study - and from the Trider (1985) study - that could be of use in the implementation of subsequent policies in which school principals play a crucial role are:

1. The most important influences on the policy implementation practices of principals are the same for elementary and secondary school principals and for male and female principals. These influences appear to be common across different types of policies.

2. Principals' personal beliefs and professional experiences dominate the decision-making process of all principals and become even more important in the later stages of the implementation process.

3. As implementation progresses, principals are also significantly influenced by the disposition and co-operation of their staff, and the quality and availability of assistance from staff (including fellow principals) outside the school. This outside assistance, termed "ongoing support", has been identified as especially crucial to the success of implementing major outside initiatives in recent studies by Riles (1986b) and Odder, Anderson and Farrer (1986).

4. Older, more experienced principals and those with an administrator orientation to the role tend to be more sensitive to factors originating in their school systems (e.g., past experiences with change in the system, preferences of central office staff). They are also more concerned with the clarity of the policy specifications themselves. Younger, less experienced principals, in contrast, are more influenced by factors originating within their own schools (e.g., the willingness of staff to co-operate). The clarity of written policy appears to be somewhat less important to them.

5. Principals' agreement with the goals of the policy is an important factor. It surfaces primarily when the goals are potentially contentious on moral or legal grounds (as in the case of Bill 82 as compared to OSIS).

6. In all cases, good working relationships within the school and between the school and the central office staff were viewed as extremely important by principals.

8.10 BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aslin, N., and DeArman, J. "Adoption and abandonment of innovative practices in high schools". *Educational Leadership* 33 (May 1976), pp. 601-606.

Baldridge, J., and Burnham, R. "Organizational innovation: individual, organizational and environmental impacts". *Administrative Science Quarterly* 20 (1975), pp. 165-176.

Banfield, E.C. "Making a federal program: model cities, 1964-68". In *Policy and politics in America: six case studies*, edited by A.P. Sindler, pp. 125-158. New York: Little, Brown and Company, 1973.

Bandura, A. *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1971.

Bardach, E. *The implementation game: what happens after a bill becomes a law*. Cambridge, Mass.: The MIT Press, 1978.

Barresi, J.G.; Bunte, J.; and Mack, J.H. *A comprehensive analysis of state's ages of eligibility policies for special education: issues and implications for policy development*. A publication of the Policy Options project. Reston, Va.: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1980.

Berman, P. "The study of macro- and micro-implementation". *Public Policy* 26 (1978), pp. 157-183.

Berman, P.. and McLaughlin, W. *Federal programs supporting educational change.* Volume VIII: *Implementing and sustaining innovations*. Santa Monica, Ca.: Rand Corporation, 1978.

Birman, B.F. *Case studies of overlap between Title I and P.L. 94-142 services for handicapped students*. Menlo Park, Ca.: SRI International, 1979.

Blaschke, C.L., et al. *P.L. 94-142: a study of the implementation and impact at the state level*. Volume 1: *Final Report*. Falls Church, Va.: Education Turnkey Systems, Inc., 1981.

Brigham, J., and Brown, D.W., eds. *Policy implementation*. Beverley Hills, Ca.: Sage, 1980.

Bunker, D.R. "Policy sciences perspectives on implementation processes". *Policy Sciences*, 3 (1972), pp. 71-80.

Calfee, R. "Cognitive psychology and educational practices". In *Review of Research in Education*, edited by D.C. Berliner, 9. Washington, D.C.: American Educational Research Associa-tion, 1981.

Carpenter, R.L., and Robson, D.L. "P.L. 94-142: perceived knowledge, expectations, and early implementation". Journal of Special Education 13 (1979), pp. 307-314.

Charters, W., Jr., and Pellegrin, R. "Barriers to the innovation process: four case studies of differentiated staffing". Educational Administration Quarterly 9 (1972), pp. 3-14.

Chase, G. "Implementing a human services program: how hard will it be?" Public Policy 27 (1979), pp. 358-435.

Clear, D., and Seager, R. "The legitimacy of administrative influence as perceived by selected groups". Educational Administration Quarterly 7 (1971), pp. 46-63.

Conrad, K.J., and Eash, M.J. "Measuring implementation and multiple outcomes in a child parent center compensatory education program". American Educational Research Journal 20 (1983), pp. 221-236.

Cronback, L.J. Toward reform of program evaluation. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1980.

deCharms, R. "Pawn or origin? Enhancing motivation in disaffected youth". Educational Leadership 34 (March 1977), pp. 444-448.

Dert Mick, M. "Washington: angry citizens and an ambitious plan". In Social program implementation, edited by W. Williams and R.F. Elmore, pp. 219-239. New York: Academic Press, 1976.

Downey, L.W. "Politics and expertise in educational policy-making". CSSE Yearbook, 1977.

Eisner, E.W. The educational imagination. New York: MacMillan, 1979.

Elmore, R.F. "Organizational models of social program implementation". Public Policy 26 (1978), pp. 185-228.

Facione, P.A.; Scherer, D.; and Attig, T. Values and society. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1978.

Fullan, M. The meaning of change. Toronto: Ministry of Education, Ontario, 1982.

Guba, E.G., and Lincoln, Y.S. Effective evaluation. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1982.

Hall, G.; Rutherford, W.; and Griffin, T. "Three change facilitator styles: some indicators and a proposed framework". Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 1982.

Hargrove, E.C. *The missing link: the study of implementation of social policy*. Washington, DC: The Urban Institute, 1975.

Hargrove, E.C., and Dean, ?. "Federal authority and grass roots accountability". *Policy Analysis* 6 (1980), pp. 127-149.

Havelock, R.G. *Planning for innovation*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan, 1971.

Helge, D.E. "Problems in implementing comprehensive special education programming in rural areas". *Exceptional Children* 47 (1981), pp. 514-520.

Henderson, L.I. "Organizational structure and the adoption of educational innovations". Doctoral dissertation, University of Toronto, 1975.

Hirshoren, A., and Heller, G. "Programs for adolescents with behaviour disorders: the state of the art". *The Journal of Special Education* 13 (1979), pp. 275-281.

House, E.R. "Justice in evaluation". In *Evaluation Studies Review Annual* 1 (1976), pp. 75-100.

House, E.R. *The politics of educational innovating*. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishers, 1974.

Hughes, L. "'Organizational climate' - Another dimension to the process of innovation". *Educational Administration Quarterly* 4 (1968), pp. 17-28.

Ingram, H.H. "Policy implementation through bargaining: the case of federal grants-in-aid". *Public Policy* 25 (1977), pp. 499-526.

Ingram, H.H., and Mann, D.E., eds. *Why policies succeed or fail*. Beverley Hills, Ca.: Sage, 1980.

Joiner, L.M., and Sabatino, D.A. "A policy study of P.L. 94-142". *Exceptional Children* 48 (1981), pp. 24-33.

Kilbourn, B. "World views and curriculum". *Interchange* 11 (1980-81), pp. 1-10.

Kirst, M., and Jung, R. "The utility of a longitudinal approach in assessing implementation: a thirteen year view of Title 1, ESEA". *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis* 2 (1980), pp. 17-33.

Knorr, K.D. "Policymakers' use of social science knowledge: symbolic or instrumental?" In Using social science research in public policy making, edited by C.H. Weiss. Lexington, Mass.: D.C. Heath and Company, 1977.

Kunz, D., and Hoy, W. "Leadership style of principals and the professional zone of acceptance of teachers". Educational Administration Quarterly 12 (Fall 1976), pp. 48-64.

LaRocque, L. Policy implementation in a school district: a multiperspective approach. Victoria, B.C.: British Columbia Research Council, 1985.

Lazin, F. "The effects of administrative linkages on implementation: welfare policy in Israel". Policy Sciences 12 (1980), pp. 193-214.

Leithwood, K.A. The role of the secondary school principal in policy implementation and school improvement. Toronto: Ministry of Education, Ontario, 1986.

Leithwood, K.A., Studies in curriculum decision-making. Toronto: OISE Press, 1982.

Leithwood, K.A., and Anderson, S. "Evaluating policy implementation". Department of Educational Administration, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, 1983.

Leithwood, K.A., and Montgomery, D.J. "Obstacles preventing principals from becoming more effective". Education and Urbane Society 17 (1986), pp. 73-88.

Leithwood, K.A., and Montgomery, D.J. "A framework for planned educational change: application to the assessment of program implementation". Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis 4 (1982), pp. 157-168.

Leithwood, K.A., and Robinson, F.G. "Planned educational change". Informal paper, Department of Curriculum, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, 1979.

Leithwood, K.A.; Wilson, R., and Marshall, A.R. "Increasing the influence of evaluation studies on program decision-making". In Evaluation roles in education, edited by A. Lewy. New York: Gordon and Breach, Science Publishers Inc., 1981.

Lessen, E., and Rose, T.L. "State definitions of preschool handicapped population". Exceptional Children 46 (1980), pp. 467-469.

Lusthaus, C.S.; Lusthaus, E.W.; and Gibbs, H. "Parents' role in the decision process". Exceptional Children 48 (1981), pp. 256-257.

Magliocca, L.A., and Stephens, T.M. "Child identification or child inventory? a critique of the federal design of child-identification systems implemented under P.L. 94-142". Journal of Special Education 14 (1980), pp. 23-36.

Majone, G., and Wildavsky, A. "Implementation as evolution". In *Policy studies review annual*, edited by H.E. Freeman, pp. 103-117. Beverly Hills, Ca.: Sage Publications.

McLaughlin, J.A., and London, S.B. "Surrogate parenting: the extent to which state education agencies have begun to comply". *Exceptional Children* 48 (1981), pp. 211-216.

Mechling, J. "Analysis and implementation". *Public Policy* 26 (1978), pp. 263-284.

Miles, M.B. "Factors making for success at different stages of change". Presentation to the Planned Educational Change Conference, Toronto, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1986a.

Miles, M.B. "Improving the urban high school: some preliminary news from five cases". Paper presented at the annual conference of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, 1986b.

Miskel, C. "Principals perceived effectiveness, innovation effort, and the school situation". *Educational Administration Quarterly* 13 (1977). pp. 31-46.

Morris, V.C.; Crowson, R.L.; Ponter-Gehrie, C.; and Hurwitz, E. *Principals in action*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1986.

Murphy, J.T. "Title I of ESEA: the politics of implementing federal education reform". *Harvard Educational Review* 41 (1971), pp. 35-63.

Nagel, S.S., ed. *Policy studies review annual*. Beverly Hills, Ca.: Sage Publications, 1977.

National Association of State directors of Special Education. *Report to congressional staff on state education agency data*. Washington, D.C.: NASDSE, 1979.

Newell, A. and Simon, H. *Human problem solving*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972.

Odden, A.; Anderson, B.; and Farrer, E. "Causal linkages of local school variables associated with successful implementation of state education improvement programs". Paper presented at the annual conference of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, 1986.

Parish, R., and Arends, R. "Why innovative programs are discontinued". *Educational Leadership* 40 (1983), pp. 62-65.

Patton, M.Q. *Utilization-focused evaluation*. Beverley Hills: Sage, 1978.

Patton, M.Q., et al. "In search of impact: an analysis of the utilization of federal health evaluation research". In Using social science research in public policy making, edited by C. H. Weiss, Lexington, Mass.: D.C. Heath and Co., 1977.

Pepper, S.C. World hypotheses: a study in evidence. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press, 1942.

Polifka, J.C. "Compliance with public law 94-142 and consumer satisfaction" Exceptional Children 48 (1981), pp. 250-253.

Porter, P. "Policy perspectives on the study of educational innovations". Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis 2 (1980), pp. 73-84.

Pressman, J.L., and Wildavsky, A.B. Implementation. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press, 1973.

Pyecha, J.N., et al. A national survey of individualized education programs (IEPS) for handicapped children. Volume I: Executive Summary, Final Report. Research Triangle Park, N.C.: Research Triangle Institute Center for Educational Research and Evaluation, 1980.

Radian, A., and S. Markansky, I. "Tax reform in Israel: partial implementation of ambitious goals". Policy Analysis 5 (1979), pp. 251-366.

Raske, D.E. "The role of general school administrator responsible for special education programs". Exceptional Children 45 (1979), pp. 645-646.

Revicki, D.A.; Rubin, R.I.; and Stuck, G.B. "Models for measuring programme implementation: a review and a critique". Journal of Curriculum Studies 13 (1981), pp. 65-57.

Reynolds, L. "Reducing the unanticipated consequences of change". Administrators' Notebook XXII (1974).

Richardson, C.M. "Learning disability procedures: a human rights perspective" Journal of Learning Disabilities 14 (1981), pp. 7-8, 41.

Rick, R.F. "Use of social science information by federal bureaucrats: knowledge for action versus knowledge for understanding". In Using social science research in public policy making, edited by C.H. Weiss. Lexington, Mass.: D.C. Heath and Co., 1977.

Rutherford, W.; Hall, G.; and Newlove, B. "Concerns principals have about facilitating change and their implications for training". No date.

Sabatier, P., and Mazmanian, D. "The implementation of public policy: a framework of analysis". Policy Studies Journal 8 (1980), pp. 538-560.

Sabatier, P., and Mazmanian, D. "The conditions of effective implementation: a guide to accomplishing policy objectives". Policy Analysis 5 (1979), pp. 481-504.

Sabatino, D.A. "Are appropriate educational programs operationally achievable under mandated promises of P.L. 94-142". Journal of Special Education 15 (1981), pp. 9-54.

Scheirer, M.A., and Rezmovic, E.L. "Measuring the degree of program implementation: a methodological review". Evaluation Review 7 (1983), pp. 599-633.

Schenck, S.J. "An analysis of EIP's for LD youngsters". Journal of Learning Disabilities 14 (1981), pp. 221-223.

Schoeider, A. "Studying policy implementation: a conceptual framework". Evaluation Review 6 (1982), pp. 715-730.

Schroeder, R.J., et al. LEA response to mandated change. Eugene, Or.: Center on Human Development, 1979.

Scriven, M. "The methodology of evaluation". In Perspectives of curriculum evaluation, edited by R.W. Tyler, R.M. Gagne, and M. Scrven. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1967, pp. 39-83.

Shapiro, H.S. "Society, ideology and the reform of special education: a study in the limits of education change". Educational Theory 30 (1980), pp. 211-223.

Shaver, J.D. "The verification of independent variables in teaching methods research". Educational Researcher (October 1983), pp. 3-9.

Simon, H.A. The sciences of the artificial. 2nd ed. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1982.

Smith, T.B. "The policy implementation process". Policy Sciences 4 (1973), pp. 197-209.

Smith, T.E.C. "Status of due process hearings". Exceptional Children 48 (1981), pp. 232-236.

SPSS Inc, (1983). SPSSX users' guide. New York: McGraw Hill, 1983.

Stake, R.E., ed. Evaluating the arts in education: a responsive approach. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill, 1975.

Stephens, T. "Innovative teaching practices: their relation to system norms and rewards". Educational Administration Quarterly 10 (1974), pp. 35-43.

Stufflebeam, D.I., et al. Educational evaluation and decision-making. Itasca, Ill.: Peacock Publishers, 1971.

Stearns, M.S.; Greene, D.; and David, J.L. Local implementation of P.L. 94-142: first year report on a longitudinal study. Menlo Park, Ca.: SRI International, 1980.

Stevenson-Hicks, R. "Public Law 94-142; practicing school psychologists' perceptions of how this law affects them". Psychology in the Schools 4 (1980), pp. 491-496.

Thouvenelle, S.; Rader, J.; and Mader, L. Study of procedures for determining the least restrictive environment (LRR) placement of handicapped children. Final Project Report. Silver Spring, M.D.: Applied Management Sciences, 1980.

Trider, D. "Factors influencing the policy implementation behaviour of principals". Doctoral dissertation. Toronto: University of Toronto, 1985.

Trider, D., and Leithwood K.A. "Influences on principal's practices". Curriculum Inquiry, (in press).

Van Horn, C.E., and Van Meter, D.S. "The implementation of inter-governmental policy". In Policy Studies Review Annual 1 (1977), pp. 97-120. Beverley Hills, Ca: Sage.

Van Meter, D.S., and Van Horn, C.E. "The policy implementation process: a conceptual framework". Administration and Society 6 (1975), pp. 445-487.

Vescera, L., et al. Special education finance: the interaction between state and federal support systems. Report No. F79-3. Denver, Co.: Education Commission of the States, 1979.

Weatherley, R., and Lipsky, M. "Street-level bureaucrats and institutional innovation: implementing special education reform". Harvard Educational Review 47 (1977), pp. 171-197.

Weber, D.B., and Rockoff, E. "The relationship between demographic characteristics of local education agencies and compliance with P.L. 93-380 and P.L. 94-142". Journal of Special Education 14 (1980), pp. 243-251.

Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary. Toronto: Thomas Allen and Son Ltd., 1971.

Weick, K. "Educational organizations as loosely coupled systems". Administrative Science Quarterly 21 (1976), pp. 1-19.

Weiss, C.H., ed. Using social research in public policy making. Toronto: Lexington Books.

Williams, W. "Implementation problems in federally funded programs". In Social program implementation, edited by W. Williams and R.F. Elmore. New York: Academic Press, 1976.

Williams, W., and Elmore, R.F., eds. Social program implementation. New York: Academic Press, 1976.